4/7/88 Govt. Advocate

THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

MORRISON AND GIBB, EDINBURGH,
PRINTERS TO HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE.

The Imperial Gazetteer of India.

W. W. HUNTER, C.S.I., C.I.E., LL.D.,
DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF STATISTICS TO THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

VOLUME IV.

COCHIN TO GANGURIÁ.

SECOND EDITION.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON, 1885.


THE INDIAN EMPIRE
Prepared for Dr. W. W. Hunter's
IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles = to 1 inch
THIBET
BAY OF BENGAL
ARABIAN SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
REFERENCES
British Territory colored ____ Pink
Dependent & Subordinate Native States ____ Yellow
Independent States ____ Green
Railways opened ____
Do not opened ____
Roads ____
The numerals denote the height above sea level in feet.
This Map is intended only to exhibit the principal places, chief rivers &c. in India.
Long. E. of Greenwich
Engraved by W. & A. K. Johnston, Edinburgh & London

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME IV.

Cochin. — Native State in subsidiary alliance with the British Government, and politically connected with the Presidency of Madras —called after the town of the same name, formerly its capital, but since its capture from the Dutch in 1795, a British possession, and included within the limits of the District of Malabár. That District bounds the State of Cochin on the west, north, and north-east; a small portion at the south-west is washed by the Arabian Sea; and the State of Travancore forms the southern boundary. It lies between 9° 48′ and 10° 50′ N. lat., and between 76° 5′ and 76° 58′ E. long.; and contains 7 Sub-divisions—namely, Cochin, Cannanore, Mugundapuram, Trichúr, Tallapalli, Chittúr, and Kranganúr. Total area, 1361 square miles. Population (1881) 600,278, namely, 301,815 males and 298,463 females.

Physical Aspects.—The most striking physical feature of the country is the series of shallow lakes or backwaters, which receive the drainage of the numerous streams descending from the Western Gháts, and are consequently liable to great rises as these feeders swell, and to equally great reductions in volume as they dry up. One of these feeders, the Alwái, has been known to rise nearly 16 feet in twenty-four hours; and the backwater into which it flows sometimes continues swollen for months, while in the dry season it shrinks in many places to a depth of 2 feet, and even to 6 inches at the northern and southern extremities. The Cochin backwaters extend from north to south for a distance of about 120 miles in all, passing considerably beyond the boundary of the State. Their breadth varies from a maximum of 10 miles to not more than a few hundred yards; and they are very irregular in form, branching into a great number of intricate and shallow channels, containing several low alluvial islands.

The communication with the sea is at three points—one at the city of Cochin, another at Kodungalúr or Kranganúr, and the third at Chetuwái or Chatwái. Though the backwaters are in most places shallow, navigation is at all times possible from Cochin to Kranganúr, and from Cochin to Aleppi or Aulapolái, both for passenger and cargo boats. During the rains, all parts are navigable by flat-bottomed boats; but for the conveyance of petty merchandise, canoes drawing little water are preferred. All the lands washed by the backwaters, whether islands or enclosing banks, are low and swampy, and liable to be flooded during the monsoon inundations. They are in general densely covered with luxuriant cocoa-nut palms; and in such places as are embanked, great quantities of rice are grown.

The chief rivers of Cochin are the Ponáni, the Tattamangalam, the Karuvanúr, and the Shalakúdi. The Alwái or Periyúr also passes through a portion of the State. The timber of Cochin is amongst the most valuable of its products, the revenue derived from the forests in 1881–82 being £5812. The principal timber tract is Iruári in the north-east, which is covered with dense forests of teak-trees of enormous size, but less durable and elastic than timber of the same kind produced in Travancore and Malabár. It is consequently more in demand for building houses than for ships, for which latter purpose it is also rendered less suitable by being cut into short blocks, in order that it may be dragged to the torrents which sweep it down to the backwater. The violence with which it is carried down the streams often renders it unfit for purposes requiring wood of large dimensions. Other valuable descriptions of timber are *peon* or *pún*, of which excellent masts are made; and blackwood, *angely*, jack, ben-teak, and bastard cedar. The only mineral products which contribute to the revenue of the State are laterite and granite; for though both gold and iron were at one time worked, these industries have now died out. The flora, however, abounds in plants of commercial value. Besides the timber-trees already mentioned, the hills afford a great variety of drug, dye and gum-yielding shrubs; cardamoms are produced in many parts, and everywhere on the hills the jungle exhibits a splendid luxuriance of foliage and flowers. The fauna includes all the larger animals of Southern India—elephant, bison, bear, tiger, leopard, *sámbhar*, and ibex, with many varieties of deer. The hunting leopard, hyæna, wolf, fox, monkey, etc., are also found, and birds are very abundant, as also are snakes and other reptiles.

History.—The State arose out of the dismemberment of the Malayálam kingdom in the time of Cheruma Perumál, from whom, by right of lineal descent, the present Rájás of Cochin claim to hold their territory. Cheruma Perumál governed the whole country of Kerála or Chera, including Travancore and Malabár, in the 9th century, first as

viceroy and afterwards as an independent ruler. Cochin early succumbed to the Portuguese, who in the 16th century built a fort, and established commercial and missionary relations with the adjoining districts. In 1599, the Archbishop of Goa convened a synod at Udiámpur, at which the tenets of the Syrian Christians, then a large body, were declared heretical. In 1662, the Dutch took the town of Cochin from the Portuguese, and under their management it soon attained to great prosperity. A century later, the Zamorin of Calicut invaded the State, but was expelled by the Rájá of Travancore, who obtained, as a reward for this service, a portion of Cochin. In 1776, Haidar Alí, the ruler of Mysore, overran the country, compelling it to become tributary; and in 1790, his son, Tipú, entered the State, and laid it waste as far as Virapalái, when he was recalled to the defence of Seringapatam. It remained nominally under the authority of Tipú until 1799, when Mysore was conquered by the British. Already, in the preceding year, the Rájá of Cochin had signed an independent treaty with the Company, by which he acknowledged himself its tributary, and agreed to a yearly tribute of £10,000. In 1809, a conspiracy to assassinate the Resident and to commence hostilities against the British necessitated the employment of troops. After the pacification of the State, another treaty was concluded, binding the Rájá to a yearly payment of £27,000, and admitting the right of the Company to control the distribution of its forces in the State, and to demand increased payments in proportion to any increase of military expenditure on behalf of the Rájá, it being provided that in no case should his income fall below £3500, in addition to one-fifth of the annual revenue. The Rájá engaged to hold no correspondence with any foreign State without the knowledge of the British Government, to admit no Europeans into his service, nor allow any to remain within his territory without the consent of the British authorities, who might dismantle or garrison any fortresses in his dominions. On the other hand, the British undertook to defend the territories of the Rájá against all enemies whatsoever. Subsequently, in 1819, the annual payment to the British Government was reduced to £24,000, being one-half of the estimated revenue at that time; and at a still later period, the tribute was fixed at £20,000, at which sum it remains at the present day. Since the date of this transfer of power to the British, Cochin has no history beyond that of internal reforms. In 1836, some changes were made in the levy of transit dues; and in 1848, the freedom of commercial intercourse between this State and the neighbouring Districts was further advanced by the removal of frontier customs' restrictions; thus, among other advantages, facilitating the passage of merchandise from Malabár and Coimbatore to the port of Cochin. By the inter-portal convention of 1865, the

system of inland transit duties was altogether abolished; the State agreeing to equalize the rates of customs' duty at its seaports with those obtaining at the ports of British India, and to sell salt within its limits at the price ruling in the District of Malabár. In return for these concessions, the British Government guaranteed to the State a minimum customs' revenue of £10,000, and a revenue from tobacco of £1050 per annum.

Population.—The first Census recorded, that of 1820, returned the total population at 223,003; but the method adopted was defective, and it was not till 1875 that a satisfactory enumeration was accomplished. The total population then disclosed was 601,114 persons, inhabiting 120,220 houses. The returns of the last Census, taken on the 17th February 1881, gave the total population at 600,278 persons, or a decrease of 836 since 1875; number of persons per square mile, 441. The principal races are Malayális, Tamulians, Konkánis, and Telugus. Divided according to religion, there were 429,324 Hindus, 33,344 Muhammadans, 136,361 Christians, and 1249 Jews. The Christians, of whom 15,422 are Protestants, form about 21 per cent. of the population; most of the remainder belong either to the Romano-Syrian Church, established here in 1659, and subject to the Archbishop of Malabár, or to the orthodox Roman Catholic Church under the Archbishop of Goa. The Jacobite and Nestorian Churches, acknowledging the Patriarch of Antioch as their head, and established long before the period of European settlements, also number many members, a few being substantial landowners. The proportion of Christians is 3 per cent. higher than in the adjoining State of Travancore, and 19·7 per cent. more than in the Madras Presidency generally. The Christians are massed in the neighbourhood of the sea-coast backwaters and lagoons, and almost monopolize the boating and fishing industry. Arranged according to local precedence, the Hindu castes stand as follows:—(1) Bráhmans, who form 3·6 per cent. of the population, and are generally priests and proprietors of land; (2) Kshatriyas, also generally landowners; (3) Ambalavasis, temple servitors; (4) Nairs, superior agriculturists and Government servants; (5) Pillais, subordinate Government servants; (6) Ottars, contractors for labour; (7) Vallamars, fishermen, cloth-weavers, potters, and artisans of all kinds; (8) Ezhuwans, agricultural labourers; (9) Chermars, agricultural serfs; (10) hillmen. Of these, the first four may be described as well-to-do, and the two last as wretchedly poor. The chief hill tribe is that of the Malayars or Kaders, living on roots, leaves, mice and other small animals, without fixed settlements or ostensible occupation, except occasional basket-weaving. The Vallamars, who live by fresh-water fishing, number 4000, but the sea fisheries are monopolized by the Marakan caste, who are more numerous. A considerable trade in

cured fish is carried on along the coast, emigrants from Ceylon coming over annually to engage in it during the fishing season. Immigration affects the population returns to the extent of about 8000 annually, the new-comers generally settling in the State. Enumerations of the population have been made five times during the last 55 years, and the result up to 1875 had been to show a great and continuous, though not always uniform, increase. Up to 1875, the increase per annum in Cochin had been 1·86 per cent.—a more rapid rate than in any of the chief European countries. The Census, however, of 1881 showed a decrease of 836 persons. The density of the population is 441 persons per square mile—a number exceeded, however, in Tanjore. The luxuriant growth of the cocoa palm on the sea-shore and backwaters is the chief support of this heavy population. Little labour being entailed by this cultivation, abundant opportunity exists for further earnings. Nearly the whole produce of the country consists of special articles for export; the collection of which at the port of Cochin, by the endless network of canals, affords ample employment to boatmen, imported rice being distributed in the shape of return cargo. The fact that a sufficient fish diet is available at an almost nominal cost has an important bearing upon the material condition of the people.

The most populous towns are—ERNAKOLAM, the capital, with 14,038 inhabitants in 1875; COCHIN, 13,775; TRICHUR, 11,109; and TRIPUNTHORA, the residence of the Rájá, 8493. Seven other towns had over 5000 inhabitants, and 47 more between 2000 and 4000, making the urban population 248,000, or 40 per cent. of the total. Smaller villages numbered 595, the average population being about 380. Later statistics for town and village population are not available. The tendency to gather into towns has become marked in recent years, while the proportion of tiled houses annually increases.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple of cultivation, some 50 varieties being locally distinguished; the best land supports three crops annually. Next to rice, cocoa-nut engages the attention of the cultivators. Wherever a sufficiently light soil prevails, this tree is grown; and its products—coir, oil, coprah, and the nuts—form the chief exports of the State. Other crops are—besides the usual cereals, pulses, and vegetables,—cotton, coffee, indigo, betel leaf and areca-nuts, hemp, flax, sugar-cane, ginger, and pepper. This list illustrates the very diversified and fertile nature of the soil. Irrigation obtains only on a small scale, the natural rainfall usually sufficing for the crops. Manure, where necessary, consists chiefly of vegetable refuse, leaves, bark, etc., and the ashes of burnt wood. Of the total area of the State (871,359 acres), nearly one-third, or 288,125 acres, is under cultivation, divided among 66,250 separate registered proprietors; the assessment ranging

from 6s. an acre downwards. The yield of an acre of superior rice land averages in value £7, 3s.; that of inferior land, £4. The majority of cultivators do not hold more than 5 acres, from which they obtain the equivalent of about 16s. a month. Most of them cultivate their own land, and tenants-at-will are rare. Rent was, till the present century, paid in kind; but, after several tentative standards, it has now been roughly commuted at about one-fourth of the value of the produce. Beyond this, no regular conversion of rents into cash has been introduced, nor do any of the revenue regulations of British Districts obtain here. The proprietary right in the soil rests either in the Government or private persons. In the former case, the tenants occupy for the most part on, nominally, simple lease, held direct from Government, but about one-fifth of the whole is in reality mortgaged to the tenants. Only two kinds of land are fiscally recognised—'rice land' and 'garden land,' the former being assessed by the area under crops, and the latter by the number of trees upon it. Cocoa-nut palms, jack fruit-trees, and palmyras pay the highest rates, which range from 1s. 10d. per tree down to 2d. Where no trees exist, the crop is assessed at about 1s. 4d. per acre. Various imposts supplement the *kanom* or land-tax proper,—the chief being *ketut-thengu*, levied upon every 100 trees, after each has been taxed individually; *nekudi*, a royalty collected by the State on the rents of private lands; and *mapura*, taken from all holdings above a certain size. Wages have doubled in every branch of labour during the last 20 years, and now average for a carpenter or bricklayer 7d. per diem, for a smith 10d., and for a day-labourer 5d. Prices of food have increased in even greater proportion; rice, which in 1851 was at 3s. per *maund* (or 4s. 1d. per cwt.), cost in 1871, 6s. 6d. (or 8s. 10d. per cwt.). The price of all other grains has risen proportionately. This rise, however, does not much affect the poorest class of day-labourers, for they receive the bulk of their wages in kind, at the old rates of about 4 lbs. of grain per diem for an adult male, 3 lbs. for a woman, and 2 lbs. for a child, the rate of commutation being generally fixed at 5d., 3d., and 2d. per diem for each. Among the urban population an increasing prosperity is marked by the improved class of dwellings erected, and by the more general distribution of luxuries. The monthly expenses for a household of the average shopkeeper class would be £4, those of an average peasant £1, 10s.

Commerce and Manufactures.—In spite of its favourable configuration for commerce, and its great natural resources, Cochin possesses no important trade by sea or land. The total number of vessels which called in 1881–82, at the ports of Mallipuram and Narakal, was only 82. The port dues amounted to £542. Except in the coffee cultivation on the Nelliámpatti range, European capital has not yet been attracted

to the State. In the Cochin and Kanayanúr *táluks*, ornamental work in metals, and carving in wood and ivory, are carried to a point of great excellence; and the hardware and arms here manufactured command a sale beyond the limits of the State. The timber produced in the forests, and the salt manufactured along the coast, are Government monopolies, and yield a large revenue. The old tobacco monopoly was abolished in 1862. Among local products, the cocoa-nut palm supplies in its nut and fibre an article of export; but the others—areca-nut, ginger, oil-seeds, pepper, etc.—are only locally interchanged. The Madras Railway approaches the State at Shoranúr, where there is a station. The principal exports, besides rice and the products of the cocoa-nut already mentioned, are pepper, cardamoms, and timber.

Means of Communication.—In consequence of the great extent and facility of water carriage, and of the impediments presented by torrents, backwaters, and inlets of the sea, the construction of roads has, until recently, been little regarded; but there are now 133 miles of good road in the State. The longest and most important line runs nearly parallel to the sea-shore, and on an average about a mile from it. This forms the principal military and official route between Travancore and Malabár. Its continuity, however, is frequently broken by the water channels which cross it. In the less swampy parts about Trichúr, there are some excellent portions of road, for making which the prevailing formation of laterite is well suited. The Cochin Government has always readily assumed its share in works common to the State and to British territory, such as the protective works at Cruz Milagre (where an opening of the breakwater into the sea threatened by diminishing the scour over the Cochin bar to impair the value of the harbour), and the improvement of the West Coast Canal for a length of 30 miles where it forms the boundary of the State. Again, when a cart-road was projected to connect Ponáni with the southern end of the Shoranúr bridge, and thus with the railway without the necessity of fording the river, the Cochin Government readily undertook the cost of the length lying within the State. There is now water communication (canals and backwater) for 45 miles between Cochin and Trichúr, and smaller canals branch from this line along its length. Throughout this water system considerable traffic is carried on for nine months of the year, for the remaining three (the hot months) the communication is often interrupted.

Religious and other Institutions.—Public libraries, aided by State grants, have been established at Ernakolam and Trichúr; and the numerous missions represented in Cochin support printing-presses, private schools, and societies for the advancement of knowledge. The Catholic mission has a large number of educational institutions. The

Official Gazette of Cochin is the only periodical publication. Charitable endowments, providing for the maintenance of Bráhman travellers, are attached to all the pagodas; and the State also grants aid to many establishments for the support of the local Bráhman population. The total expenditure on religious and charitable endowments amounts to £11,732 per annum. Religious gatherings are held annually at all the chief pagodas; the attendance at the most important—that held at Kranganúr, and lasting for ten days—averages 12,000 per diem. At all these gatherings a large interchange of local produce is effected.

Natural Calamities.—The State of Cochin is not subject to famine, the ample means of communication which it possesses placing it beyond the likelihood of such a visitation. Nor are destructive floods or droughts known. A local inundation or deficiency of rainfall may at times have caused temporary loss, but there is no case on record of an entire harvest having been destroyed.

Administration.—The State is divided for administrative purposes into 7 *táluks* or Sub-divisions, each supervised by a *tahsíldár*, the local head of the police, revenue, and magisterial administration, assisted by a subordinate native staff. In matters of revenue, the *tahsíldárs* are under the direct control of the *Diwán*, or chief magistrate of the State, and responsible adviser of the Rájá; while in matters of police or criminal justice they are subject to the *Diwán-peshkár* (the chief assistant of the *Diwán*), who is assisted by a Deputy. Civil justice is administered locally by five *munsifs*, possessing jurisdiction in civil suits up to the value of £50, and by two *zilá* courts. The Court of Appeal, the highest tribunal of the State, has unlimited powers, both civil and criminal, subject only in sentences of death and imprisonment for life to the confirmation of the Rájá. The administrative head-quarters of Cochin are at Ernakolam; but the Rájá resides at Tripúntora, 5 miles distant. The Penal Code of British India has been partially introduced into the State, and also a Registration Act modelled upon our Act viii. of 1871. The total revenue for 1881–82 amounted to £144,928; the total expenditure, to £133,426. In 1809–10, the revenue was only £58,716; and the expenditure, £50,370. The chief items of income (1881–82) were—land revenue, £63,539; customs, £11,619; salt, £18,353; and excise on spirits and drugs, £4270: principal items of expenditure—subsidy to British Government, £20,000; Rájá's establishment, £18,516; administration (judicial, revenue, and police), £23,348; religious and charitable endowments, £11,732; public works, £15,769. The police force numbers 217 men, and costs annually £1470. During 1881–82 they arrested 3391 persons implicated in 1397 cases, obtaining only 654 convictions, while the remainder were either acquitted or discharged. Owing to the peculiar system of police administration obtaining in the State, these

figures do not convey a correct view of the working of the Department, the reorganization of which is under contemplation. There is no village watch such as obtains in the neighbouring British Districts. The daily number of prisoners in jail during 1881–82 averaged 134; the charges for the maintenance of the jails were £381; average cost per head, £2, 16s. 10d. Education costs the State £2646 annually, the chief institution being the High School at Ernakolam, with an average daily attendance of 213 pupils. Five Anglo-vernacular, one Hebrew-Sanskrit, and seven Malayálam schools receive grants-in-aid from Government, as also do numerous primary schools for boys. Female education has not as yet engaged State attention. Of the total population of 600,278, the Census disclosed 26,621 as being able to read and write; of these, 1133 were women. The postal department, which is modelled on that of British India, carried during 1870–71 about 17,300 letters, 950 newspapers, and 17 books, exclusive of all covers on public service. There are no municipalities. In regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects, the Rájá, with the approval of the Madras Government, appoints two or three gentlemen—being European British subjects and Christians—to exercise the same jurisdiction as may be exercised in British territory by European British subjects who are magistrates of the first class and justices of the peace. From the sentences of these magistrates there is an appeal to the European judge of the Rájá's chief court, who is also a justice of the peace; and in both original and appeal cases, it is open to the British Resident to advise the Cochin Government to mitigate or remit the sentence. The gentlemen, selected as above by the Rájá, have been appointed by the Governor-General in Council to be Justices of the Peace, with a view to their remitting serious cases either to the Resident, who under the authority of the Government of India has the powers *ad hoc* of a sessions judge, or to the High Court of Madras, in accordance with the rules prescribed by sec. 75 of the Code of Criminal Procedure. The Rájás of Cochin are Hindus of pure Kshatriya caste, and claim to be descended from the last of the potentates who held supreme authority over the whole extent of territory stretching from Gokuru in North Kánara to Cape Comorin. The present Rájá, Ráma Varma, was born in 1835, and succeeded to the throne in 1864. He was created Knight Commander of the Star of India in 1871, and is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. He holds a *sanad* authorizing adoption; the succession devolves on the eldest male member of the family, if any, according to the Malabár law. The military force consists of 326 men and 2 guns.

Medical Aspects.—The climate, though very damp, is not particularly unhealthy. The average annual rainfall is 107·66 inches, of which 82·10 inches fall during the monsoon, which lasts through the months of May, June, July, and August. The mean annual tempera-

ture is 79·7° F., and is very uniform throughout the year, only varying from a monthly average of 77·7° in January to 83·4° in April, which is the dry season. Even during the latter, though called dry, the air is moist, and frequent showers of rain reduce the temperature, so that a continued drought is unknown. Among endemic diseases, elephantiasis, leprosy, and skin diseases are specially frequent, and malarious fevers prevail all the year round. The elephantiasis is attributed to the impure water used along the coast, where it is most prevalent. Small-pox was annually epidemic from 1865 to 1868; and in 1873, an outbreak of special virulence occurred, 30 per cent. of the cases proving fatal. Cholera appeared in 1865, and again in 1875–1876, causing, however, no great loss of life. Native practice is chiefly guided by two Sanskrit works, the *Ashtanghirtayom* and the *Chintarmai*, the mode of treatment being remarkable for the extensive use of medicated oils. [For further information regarding Cochin State, see pp. 53–56 of the revised edition of the *Standing Information regarding the Administration of the Madras Presidency*, by C. D. Maclean, Esq., C.S. (Madras, 1879). Also *Administration Report of the Madras Presidency* for 1881–82.]

Cochin.—One of the seven Sub-divisions of the Native State of Cochin, Madras Presidency. Chief towns—COCHIN (1875) population 13,775, TRICHUR (1881, 10,094), Kam balangi (1875, 6369), and Charái (1875, 5051); other large villages, with their population in 1881, are the following:— NARAKAL (4254), Pallúrthi (3912), Málankuzi (3033), Edavanakad (3377), Edakuchi (2104), Andikadava (1984), Challanam (2532), Ochanthurti (2280), Azhikal (1725), Elangunapoya (3076), Nairambolam (3161), and Wadakanpura (2013). The gold and silver work and the wood and ivory carving of this Sub-division have more than a local reputation.

Cochin.—Native town in the Cochin Sub-division of the Native State of Cochin, Madras Presidency. It consists of 4 conjoined villages, containing 2626 houses, with (1875) 13,775 inhabitants; situated in lat. 9° 58′ 7″ N., and long. 76° 17′ E., on the Travancore estuary half a mile south of the British town of Cochin, in the midst of the populous tract lying between the backwater and the sea. It is connected by canals with Trichúr. Cochin was formerly the capital of the State; and near it tradition places the gold reefs said to have been once worked, but certainly not auriferous now. The station of a (native) sub-judge. The Mattancheri and Jews' quarters of the British town of Cochin (*vide infra*) lie within the limits of the Native State.

Cochin (*Kochchi*).—*Táluk* of Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Area, 2 square miles or 1280 acres, containing 3436 houses; population (1881) 21,360. Surrounded by the Native State of Cochin, but subject

to the British District of Malabár. Land revenue (1882–83), £1717. Chief towns—COCHIN (*infra*), ANJENGO, and TANGACHERI.

Cochin (or *Kochchi-bandar*, 'small port').—Town and head-quarters of the Cochin *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 58′ 7″ N., long. 76° 17′ E. Houses, 2878. Population (1881) 15,698, namely, 4383 Hindus, 2942 Muhammadans, 8360 Christians, and 13 'others.' Area of the municipality, 597 acres, completely built over; revenue for 1875–76, £1812; incidence of municipal taxation, about 11d. per head. Situated on the south bank of the principal navigable entrance to the great Travancore estuary, along which the town extends for a mile, and then joins Mattancheri and the Jews' settlement. Facing Cochin to the north lies the island of Vypín, colonized by Eurasian Roman Catholics. The date at which this island was formed by the action of the sea and river, A.D. 1341, is sometimes used in deeds as the commencement of an era styled *Puttuveppu* (new deposit). As the head-quarters of a subordinate revenue and judicial establishment, Cochin contains the usual courts, jail, and public offices; also a custom house, Master Attendant's office, post and telegraph offices, dispensary, travellers' bungalow, and numerous schools, supported either by the various missions established here or by the municipality. The many quaint old Dutch buildings give a picturesque appearance to the town. The exports of Cochin in 1880–81 were valued at £658,878, one-seventh dutiable; and the imports at £454,954, of which about 4 per cent. paid duty. The port dues collected during the year amounted to £2625.

History.—Cochin was one of the first spots in India visited by Europeans. Tradition, indeed, asserts that St. Thomas the apostle extended his labours to this region in 52 A.D., leaving behind him the colony of Christians now called Nassaráni Máppilás (Moplas). It is further said that, in the first year of the Christian era, the Jews settled on the site of their present colony. Afterwards they established their head-quarters at Kranganúr (Kodungalúr), where they remained until driven away in the 16th century by the Zamorin's Máppilás. From copper plates still extant, it is put beyond doubt that the Jewish and Syrian churches were firmly established in Cochin by the 8th century. The modern history of the port is full of interest. In 1500, the Portuguese adventurer, Cabral, after having cannonaded Calicut, landed at this place and met with a friendly reception from the Rájá, who is described as a reluctant vassal of the Zamorin. Cabral returned to Portugal with a cargo of pepper, and was followed by Inan de Nova Castelho. In 1502, Vasco da Gama, on his second voyage, came to Cochin and established a factory. In 1503, Albuquerque, the Portuguese admiral, arrived just in time to succour the Cochin Rájá, who was besieged by the Zamorin in the island of Vypín. He built the Cochin fort called

'Mannel Kolati,' the first European fort in India, just five years after Da Gama had arrived on the Malabar coast. The fort was enlarged in 1525 by Menezes, the second Viceroy. Albuquerque returned to Portugal, leaving Cochin guarded by only a few hundred men under Duarte Pacheco, when the Zamorin with a large host invaded the country by land and sea. Pacheco with his brave band of 400 men firmly resisted all the attacks of the Zamorin, and at last forced him to retreat to Calicut. In 1505, Francisco Almeyda, the first Portuguese Viceroy of India, came to Cochin with a large fleet, and was in 1510 succeeded by Albuquerque. On Christmas day 1524, Da Gama died here, and was buried, according to Correa, whose narrative is the most trustworthy, in the principal chapel of the Franciscan monastery, now used as the Protestant church. His body was afterwards (1538) removed to Portugal. In 1530, St. Francis Xavier, the apostle of the Indies, preached in these parts and made many converts. In 1557, the church of Santa Cruz was consecrated as the cathedral of a bishop. In 1577, the Society of Jesus published at Cochin the first book printed in India. In 1585, Cochin appears to have been visited by the English traveller Ralph Fitch, who, with a band of adventurers, came by the way of Aleppo, Bagdad, and the Persian Gulf to India. In 1616, the English, under Keeling, engaged to assist the Zamorin in attacking Cochin, on the understanding that an English factory was to be established there. These relations were, however, broken off, and the factory was built some years later with the consent of the Portuguese. In 1663, the town and fort were captured from the Portuguese by the Dutch, and the English retired to Ponáni. The Dutch greatly improved the place and its trade, building substantial houses after the European fashion, and erecting quays, etc. They also converted the cathedral into a warehouse, and the other Roman Catholic churches were used as Protestant places of worship. In 1778, Adrien Van Moens completely altered the fort, providing it with new ditches, and building seven strong bastions. On the conquest of Holland by the French, orders were received from the English Court of Directors in 1795 to take possession of all the Dutch colonies. As the Dutch governor Vanspall demurred to surrendering Cochin peacefully, it was besieged and captured by Major Petrie (20th October 1795). In 1806, the English blew up the cathedral, destroying at the same time some of the quays, the best houses in the place, and the fort. In 1814, Cochin was formally ceded to the English by treaty.

The Protestant church (formerly the principal chapel of the Franciscan monastery, and probably dedicated to St. Anthony), which escaped the general destruction above referred to, is a plain massive building, with a nave 142 feet long by 51 broad. Its exact age is unknown; but from inscriptions on the floor, it certainly existed before

1546, and is therefore the oldest European church in India, except perhaps the Calicut church. It contains some curious old epitaphs. One of these tombstones is sometimes pointed out as that of Vasco da Gama, because it has the word 'Vasco' on it, the rest of the name being obliterated, but the coat of arms above is certainly not that of Da Gama. The façade of the church was surmounted by an ornamented bronze cross and a weathercock, 6 feet high, which could be distinctly perceived some 10 miles off at sea; but in 1865 these were pulled down. Nearly all traces of the old fort have now disappeared. The building occupied as court-house and *táluk* 'cutcherry' was formerly the Roman Catholic convent. Among the other principal buildings may be mentioned the jail, marine office, travellers' bungalow, churches, and schools. The custom-house is situated on the boundary limits of British and Native Cochin. The chief native quarters are—Calvetti Bázár, thickly populated by Máppilás (Moplas), which narrowly escaped destruction by fire on New Year's day 1876; and Amaráwadi, inhabited by Chetties and goldsmiths. The lighthouse is situated on the ruins of the ramparts, and adjoining it are the bungalows of European residents facing the sea. Of late years, the sea has threatened to encroach on the place; but several stone groins have been thrown out at right angles to the river bank, and the foreshore has been reclaimed.

Cocos, The.—Two islands in the Bay of Bengal, situated between lat. 14° 4′ and 14° 10′ N., and in long. 93° 21′ E.; 45 miles north of the Great Andaman, and a short distance south of Table Island, on which there is a good lighthouse, showing a fixed light visible 22 miles in clear weather, and having an elevation of 195 feet above sea-level. The larger and more northerly of the two, called the Great Coco, is a low oblong-shaped island, between 6 and 7 miles in length and 2 miles broad; area, about 14 square miles. The smaller island, or Little Coco, lying about 3 leagues to the south-west of the Great Coco, is 2½ miles long and about a mile broad. Both islands are to a great extent protected by the Andamans from the heavy south-west swell of the Bay of Bengal; but more or less boisterous weather prevails in October and May, when the north-west and south-west monsoons set in. The Great Coco is surrounded by a strip of white coral beach, on which grows an almost continuous fence of cocoa-nut trees. A ship may anchor on the east side of the Great Coco in from 14 to 20 fathoms; also on the west side in the north-east monsoon. Viewed from a distance, the island appears to be entirely covered with these palms (to which it doubtless owes its name); but in reality they form only a narrow belt, the interior being covered with forest trees. One or two parallel ridges, running north and south through the centre of the island, rise to a height not exceeding 50 feet. The island appears

(from a careful examination made in 1874) to be destitute of drinking water; although it has been said that a good tank exists somewhere. A few wild pigs are found, and there are many birds. The meteorological aspects of the islands do not differ from those of the ANDAMANS. It is on record that a party of 3 Europeans, 1 East Indian, and 8 Burmese tried to effect a settlement on the Great Coco in 1849; but the project had to be abandoned, 7 of the party having succumbed to fever shortly after they landed. In 1878, the Governor-General invited tenders for a fifty years' lease of the Great Coco, which has subsequently been rented to a European gentleman, and placed under the jurisdiction of the Chief Commissioner of British Burma.

Coimbatore (*Koyambatúr*).—District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 10° 14′ and 12° 19′ N. lat., and 76° 35′ and 78° 14′ E. long. Area, 7842 square miles. Population in 1881, 1,657,690. Bounded on the north and north-west by the State of Mysore; on the east by Salem and Trichinopoli Districts, the Káveri (Cauvery) river marking the boundary up to the line of railway; on the west by the Nílgiris, Malabár District, and the State of Cochin; and on the south by the District of Madura and the State of Travancore. Coimbatore in point of size ranks seventh, and in point of population tenth, among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. It is sub-divided into 10 *táluks*, and contains 1447 inhabited villages, including 10 towns. The chief town and administrative head-quarters of the District is COIMBATORE. Land revenue (1881–82), £280,969; total revenue, £328,310.

Physical Aspects.—The northern portion of the District consists of an elevated table-land, divided from the Mysore plateau (of which it really forms a continuation) by the Biligiri-rangan and other hill ranges. It has a northerly slope, and presents throughout an undulating surface, with an average elevation of 2500 feet above the rest of the District. The Biligiri-rangan Hills form a double range, with ridges 5000 feet in height, enclosing a valley 4000 feet above the sea, filled with heavy forest and high grass, a favourite resort of wild elephants. Two passes, the Hassanúr and Burghúr *gháts*, lead thence into the 'low country.' This is a plain, slightly undulating, with an easterly slope from the town of Coimbatore (1431 feet above the sea) to Karúr (380 feet). All the rivers, therefore, flow eastward to join the Káveri, except in the Polláchi *táluk*, which is situated on the western slope of the watershed. On the western confines of the District lie the Nílgiri Hills, the most conspicuous point being Lambton's Peak, a narrow ridge 5000 feet in height; while on the southern frontier lie the ANAMALAIS. Along the northern boundary flows the KAVERI, the chief river of Coimbatore, which receives in this District the waters of the BHAVANI, NOYIL, and AMRAVATI. Being confined within rocky

banks, and having a fall of 1000 feet in 120 miles, the Káveri is very rapid. An area of 3000 square miles is covered with forests, which afford a large supply of valuable timber—teak, rosewood, sandalwood, etc. Waste pasture lands constitute a large portion of the Collegál *táluk;* and hither immense herds of cattle are yearly driven from the neighbouring District of Salem to graze. The Lambádís and Brinjárás here breed their pack-bullocks. The chief mineral products of the District are iron and limestone; the latter, found everywhere in the nodular form of *kankar*, exists near the town of Coimbatore in a crystalline form, which is quarried for building purposes. In a District so abundantly supplied with forest, waste land, and hills, it is natural that the fauna should be numerous. Nearly all the larger animals of India are found here—elephant, bison, bear, tiger, leopard, ibex, antelope, deer of several species, hyæna, boar, wolf, etc.; as also the representative birds of every order. In the rivers, the *máhser* fish is common, running to a great size. Reptiles abound, and about 100 deaths from snake-bite are reported annually. The yearly expenditure in rewards for the destruction of dangerous animals averages £200.

History.—The District of Coimbatore formed part of the kingdom of CHERA, in the great Dravida division of Southern India. Its ancient name appears to have been Konga or Kangiyam, which still survives in the town of that name in the Dárapuram *táluk.* The early kingdom of Chera corresponded roughly with the present Districts of Coimbatore and 'Salem below-*gháts*,' and had for its capital a city near the site of the present Karúr. About the 9th century, the Chera country was conquered by the Chola dynasty; and two centuries later, both together were merged, with the Pándya dominions, into one kingdom. The eastern portion of Coimbatore passed nominally into the hands of the Madúra Náiks in the 16th century; and in the 17th century commenced the series of Mysore incursions which terminated in the 18th century in the incorporation of the District with Mysore. In 1653, the first invaders, descending by the Gazalhatti Pass, ravaged the rich plains of Satyamangalam, and penetrated across the District into Madúra. Thence they were driven back by the generals of Tirumála Náik through the passes into Mysore. Fourteen years later they returned, capturing Erode and Dárapuram, and virtually subduing the District. During the wars of Haidar Alí and his son Tipú Sultán, Coimbatore divided with the Báramahál and Trichinopoli the distinction of being the scene of the hardest fighting. When Haidar rose in the service of the Mysore Rájá, and exacted concessions of land for himself, Coimbatore was the first tract assigned to him. He lost it by the temporary reverses of 1760–61, but immediately employed his recovered strength to regain possession. In 1768, the British troops occupied the District; but Haidar soon rallied, recaptured it, and carried into

captivity all the weak garrisons that had been left scattered over the country. In 1783, when Tipú was besieging Mangalore, a diversion was made by a British contingent into Coimbatore; and Karúr, Aravakurichi, and Dárápuram were taken in succession. The fort of Coimbatore next fell; but the treaty of Mangalore, signed immediately afterwards, restored the District to Mysore. During the second war with Tipú, in 1790, a British force again advanced upon the District; and though it was overrun, Tipú, descending in force, soon reoccupied all the forts. A severe battle fought near Dárápuram left him, though not victorious, in virtual possession. In 1791, while Lord Cornwallis was invading Mysore, Tipú laid siege to the town of Coimbatore; and though it was gallantly defended for five months (by Lieutenants Chalmers and Nash), the garrison were at length obliged to capitulate, and were carried prisoners to Seringapatam. The treaty of 1792, signed soon afterwards, ceded Coimbatore and the greater portion of the District to the English; and in 1799, on the capture of Seringapatam and death of Tipú, the whole passed under the direct administration of the East India Company. The southern part of the District was then added to the Dindigal Collectorate, and the remainder, with part of Salem District, erected into a separate charge. A rough survey was carried out; and on the lines then laid down, the administration of the District has ever since peaceably progressed. The Jesuit mission at Coimbatore has lately been erected into a separate Vicariate-Apostolic, with jurisdiction over the Nílgiris and parts of Malabár and Cochin. The London, Leipzig, Lutheran, and Evangelical missions have all settlements in the District.

Population.—The Census of 1871 disclosed a total population of 1,763,274 persons, inhabiting 361,109 houses. The latest Census, that of 1881, returned a total population of 1,657,690, showing a decrease of 105,584, or very nearly 6 per cent., in the decade, due to the severe famine of 1876–78. Coimbatore was one of the 'famine Districts' of that disastrous time, but the distress was not equally intense over the whole District. In the *táluks* of Coimbatore, Karúr, and Pollachi, the number of the population has even increased. The male population of the District in 1881 numbered 806,859, and the female 850,831; proportion of males, 48·6 per cent. Average density of population, 211 persons per square mile, as compared with 225 in 1871; number of towns and villages, 1447; number of occupied houses, 354,920; number of villages per square mile, ·18; occupied houses per square mile, 45; inmates per house, 4·6. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, 1,606,343, or 96·9 per cent., were returned as Hindus; 37,855, or 2 per cent., as Muhammadans; 13,326, or 0·69 per cent., as Christians; there were also 63 Buddhists, 68 Jains, 4 Pársís, and 31 'others.' Of

children under ten years of age there were 218,372 males and 228,438 females. Among the Christians, 87 per cent. of whom are Roman Catholics, are included 274 Europeans and 272 Eurasians. The Hindu population was distributed as follows: — Bráhmans, 29,792; Kshatriyas, 3039; Chetties (traders), 55,136; Vallálars (agriculturists), 690,402; Idáiyars (shepherds), 42,432; Kammálars (artisans), 43,458; Kanakkans (writers), 1062; Kaikalars (weavers), 81,641; Vanniyans (labourers), 107,480; Kushavans (potters), 16,394; Satánís (mixed castes), 66,068; Shembadavans (fishermen), 25,004; Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 55,517; Ambattans (barbers), 20,062; Vannáns (washermen), 23,317; Pariahs, 216,270; 'others,' 129,269. According to occupation, 18,591, or 1·12 per cent. of the total population, are professional; 14,408, or 0·87 per cent., domestic; 12,943, or 0·78 per cent., commercial; 629,514, or 37·97 per cent., agricultural; 251,883, or 15·20 per cent., industrial; and 730,351, or 44·06 per cent., indefinite and non-productive. 3·12 per cent. among the last are returned as 'occupied.' About 59 per cent. are returned as workers, on whom the remaining 41 per cent. of the population depend. Of males 67·41 per cent., and of females 51·13 per cent., are workers. There are educated or under instruction 89,909 persons, or 83,202 males and 6707 females, the percentage being 10·31 and 0·79 respectively. The hill and jungle tribes are the Malasers, Irulers, Paliars, Kaders, and Madavars, found chiefly in the Anamalais, who subsist precariously on wild fruits and roots, by the chase, or the sale of jungle produce. The Muhammadans were divided, according to sect, into 4470 Labhays, 1889 Shaikhs, 2027 Patháns, and 6602 Sayyids. The Máppilás, Arabs, and Mughals number together only 122, while 14,758 were returned as 'others,' and 7987 as 'not stated.' The language of the northern portion of the District is Kanarese, that of the remainder Tamil; but in many villages a corrupt Telugu prevails, bearing witness to the northern origin of the inhabitants. The chief towns are—COIMBATORE (population 38,967), ERODE (9864), and KARUR (9205), the three municipalities of the District; BHAVANI (5930), COLLEGAL (8462), DARAPURAM (7310), POLLACHI (5082), PALLAPATTI (6351), SATYAMANGALAM (3210), and UDAMALPET (5061). The agriculturists of the Vallálar caste and day-labourers are all poor, living in mud-walled huts, and subsisting on *cholam*, *ragí*, and *kambu*, the staple food-grains of the District. Rice is eaten only by the well-to-do. The expenses of an ordinary shopkeeper, with a household of five persons, have been estimated at about £3 per month, and of a cultivator's family at about one-half that sum.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, 7842 square miles (5,018,880 acres), 3,469,331 acres were returned in 1881–82 as assessed to Government revenue. The total area under cultivation

amounted to 2,100,393 acres, of which 115,072 acres were irrigated. The cultivable area not under the plough was 1,100,869 acres; pasture and forest lands, 481,265 acres; and uncultivable waste, 617,363 acres; total uncultivated, 2,099,497 acres. Of the total area, 324,511 acres are held in *inám*, or under a free grant. In the course of 1881–82, a regular survey and settlement of great part of Coimbatore took place. The staple crops of the District are—*cholam* (Sorghum vulgare) and *kambu* (Panicum spicatum), which occupied 519,775 and 657,555 acres respectively of the cultivated area; *ragí* (Eleusine coracana), 212,265 acres; gram (Dolichos biflorus), 63,409 acres; rice, 85,717 acres; and other cereals, 35,968 acres. Rice requires heavy irrigation, and its cultivation is not increasing. Other crops, as *dál* (Cajanus indicus), *úlandú* (Phaseolus mungo), peas, lentils, and other pulses occupied 199,357 acres; orchard and garden produce, as plantains, cocoa-nuts, etc., 8184 acres; tobacco, 17,396 acres; coffee, 258 acres; condiments and spices, 16,581 acres; potatoes, 2128 acres; sugar-cane and sugar palm, 5777 acres; oil-seeds, 46,090 acres; cotton, 229,631 acres; and flax, 302 acres. The agricultural stock of the District in 1881–82 comprised 531,725 horned cattle, 14,583 donkeys, 2363 ponies, 350 horses, 245,653 goats, 354,154 sheep, 10,908 pigs, 16,866 carts, and 166,770 ploughs. The prices of produce ruling in the District at the end of the year 1881–82, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were for rice, 5s. 1½d.; for wheat, 6s. 9¾d.; other grains, from 2s. 3d. to 2s. 10d.; gram, from 2s. 7½d. to 5s. 5½d.; chillies, 7s.; salt, 6s. 7½d.; sugar, 11s. 5¼d.; gingelly, 7s. 3¾d.; ground nuts, 3s. 2¼d.; tobacco, 11s. 9¾d.; flax, 10s.; cotton, 7s. 7½d.; sheep, 4s. 6d. each. There are two seasons for sowing, May and October, and two harvests, in September and February. Rice land pays from 15s. to £2, 12s. in land revenue per acre, and produces a crop ranging in value, according to the quality of the soil, from £2, 8s. to £5, 6s. Most land also yields a second crop, valued at about half the first. The majority of the holdings are very small; and the average of the revenue assessment is about 16s. A holding paying £50 a year to Government is considered an exceptionally large one, and one paying £10 a comfortable estate. The holder of an estate paying less than £2 would be considered poor. With a single pair of oxen, 5 acres can be cultivated; the necessary implements and oxen would cost about £5; and if the plot were garden land, the cultivator would be about as well off as a retail shopkeeper making 16s. a month. Most of the cultivators have occupancy rights; but many villages are held *zamíndárí*, as one estate, the proprietor paying a fixed yearly revenue (*peshkash*) to Government, and recouping himself from his tenants. Other villages and plots, again, are held as *jágírs*, *shrotriem*, or *inám*, rent free, and on specially advantageous

terms, in reward for services rendered, or for the support of religious and charitable endowments. Under the Mysore rule, the District was farmed by a few wealthy individuals, who made themselves responsible for the revenue; but in 1800, after the last Mysore war, when the Company assumed the administration, the present system of direct settlement with the cultivators was introduced. Waste lands, overgrown with cactus, the scourge of part of the District, are leased rent free, for terms not exceeding ten years, to any who will rid them of the pest, and bring them under cultivation. The principle of rotation of crops appears to be thoroughly understood, and the advantages of manure are appreciated. The 'Imperial' and 'Minor' irrigation works of the District comprise 59 channels and 119 tanks, irrigating an area of 55,276 acres, and yielding a revenue of £29,365. Agricultural day-labourers or coolies earn 4½d. per diem; women, 3d.; and children, 1½d. Blacksmiths, bricklayers, and carpenters receive from 1s. to 1s. 9d. per diem. Since 1850, the rates of wages for skilled labour have risen from 25 to 80 per cent., and prices of food have doubled. Rice, which in 1850 was selling at 3s. per *maund* (80 lbs.), now sells at 5s. 6d.; *cholam*, formerly 1s. 4d. per *maund*, now costs 3s.; wheat, once 3s. per *maund*, now sells at 7s.; salt has risen from 4s. 4d. to 6s. 7½d. per *maund*, and country liquor from 1½d. to 3d. and 8d. per gallon. Accumulations of money from the profits of agriculture are to a large extent employed in well-building and the improvement of land. The rate of interest varies from 6 to 12 per cent. per annum, though 24 to 30 per cent. is sometimes charged; 9 per cent. is considered a good return for money invested in land.

Natural Calamities.—Periods of drought and consequently high prices have recurred at regular intervals, in 1837–38, 1847–48, 1857–58, 1868–69; but in none of these years did the scarcity ever amount to famine. In 1876, owing to the failure of crops in Mysore and the Ceded Districts, an immense exportation of grain from Coimbatore took place; the result being such a rapid rise in the rates, that in two months the price of *cholam* had doubled, and *ragí*, selling in October at 25 lbs. for 1s., cost in December three times that amount. Actual famine afterwards set in; and relief works had to be opened, which in a month gave employment to 28,000 persons. A steady importation of sea-borne grain soon brought prices to their normal rates. Against famine Coimbatore has now the best safeguard—a railway traversing it, and good roads communicating with the Districts adjoining on all sides.

Commerce and Trade.—Weaving is the chief industry of the District, and, though of late years affected by the low price of British textures, constitutes a lucrative employment. The general export trade is small, consisting chiefly in the exchange of cotton of inferior quality, tobacco,

and grain, for salt. Palladam is the centre of the cotton trade, the fibre being there pressed, and despatched to the railway station of Tirupúr for transmission to the ports of Madras and Beypur. Weekly markets held at the towns and larger villages—about 250 in all—provide amply for local interchange of produce. The total length of railway lines running through the District is 147 miles, viz. the Madras Railway, south-west line, with a branch to the Nílgiri Hills from Podanúr junction station to Mettapolliem, and the South Indian Railway passing through Karúr, and joining the Madras line at Erode station. There are also 1514 miles of made Imperial and Local roads. The principal roads are the Madras Trunk Road and those leading to Trichinopoli, Madura, and the Burghúr and Hassanúr Passes, aggregating a total length of 385 miles. *Khedas*, or stockades, for the capture of wild elephants have been established in the north of the District. In 1873, an Act was passed forbidding the destruction of these animals; and since that year several scores of elephants have been captured alive.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 10 *táluks*—COIMBATORE, POLLACHI, PALLADAM, KARUR, ERODE, UDAMALPET, DARAPURAM, SATYAMANGALAM, COLLEGAL, and BHAVANI—each of which is supervised by a native staff, revenue and judicial. The Sub-Collector, Head Assistant (Europeans), and Deputy Collector have superior jurisdiction; the first over 4, the second over 3, and the third over 2 *táluks*, the Collector-Magistrate having himself special charge of the head-quarters *táluk*. The Nílgiri Hills formed, until 1868, a Sub-division of Coimbatore. The total revenue for 1881-82 was £328,310. The principal items of income were—land revenue, £280,969; excise, £25,973; stamps, £20,107; forests, £4623; and assessed taxes, £1258. The judicial machinery of the District consists of 6 civil courts and 32 magisterial courts, exclusive of village magistrates. The police force aggregates a strength of 1211 of all ranks, being in the proportion of 1 constable to every 6 square miles and to every 1369 of the population, maintained at an annual cost of £19,563. The District contains 1 central, 1 District, and 16 subsidiary jails. The central jail accommodates upwards of 1000 prisoners. The daily average number of prisoners in it and in the District jail was, in 1881, 1185; in all the others together, 91. The total expenditure on this account for 1881 amounted to £7165, or £6, 18s. per head, for the prisoners in the central jail; and £881, or £5, 15s. per head, for those in the District jail.

Medical Aspects.—Coimbatore is remarkable for the comparatively cool winds which blow across it from the west between May and October. The monsoon brings its rain to Malabár, and up to the range of hills separating that District from Coimbatore; but there it stops, a cold damp wind without any rain blowing during the monsoon months over the plains of Coimbatore. Thus, after the hot months of March and

April, the temperature suddenly falls, and remains low till October. The District is healthy, except at the foot of the hill ranges, where the atmosphere at night is so malarious that the cultivators dare not remain after dusk. The number of births registered in the District in 1881 was 35,038, or a ratio of 21·1 births per 1000 of population. The number of registered deaths for the same year was 20,805, or 12·5 per 1000, the mean for the previous five years being 15·2. The extension of cultivation having greatly curtailed the pasturage, murrain and 'foot-and-mouth' disease have become prevalent among the cattle. The latter disease has been communicated to the wild herds of bison, and sportsmen find the numbers of these animals rapidly decreasing from this cause. [For further information regarding Coimbatore, see the *Madras Census Report* for 1881, and the *Annual Administration Reports of the Presidency* from 1880 to 1883.]

Coimbatore.—*Táluk* of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 804 square miles, of which about 56 per cent. is under cultivation. The *táluk* contains 1 town and 261 villages, and 51,761 occupied houses. Population (1881) 267,804, namely, 131,334 males and 136,470 females; land revenue demand, £33,870. There are in the *táluk* 2 civil and 4 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 10; strength of police, 349 men.

Coimbatore (*Koyambátúr*, formerly *Koyampadi* and *Koibmutur*).—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. A station of the Madras Railway situated on the left bank of the Noyil river, in lat. 10° 59′ 41″ N., and long. 76° 59′ 46″ E.; 304 miles by rail from Madras, and 50 miles from Utákamand (Ootacamund). Houses, 6684, of which 1007 were unoccupied in 1881; two-thirds of the houses are tiled. Population (1881) 38,967, namely, 33,997 Hindus, 2763 Muhammadans, 2162 Christians, and 45 'others;' municipal revenue in 1881–82, £2651; incidence of taxation per head, about 1s. 4¼d. As the head-quarters of the District administration, Coimbatore contains all the chief courts—magisterial, revenue, and judicial—the central jail, District police, post and telegraph offices, dispensary, and school. The town lies 1437 feet above sea-level; and, being built with particularly wide streets, and possessing good natural drainage, an abundant water-supply, and a cool temperature, it is better suited for the residence of Europeans than most of the towns of the Presidency. The Nílgiri branch of the Madras south-western line connects it with the railway system—the junction station for Coimbatore being Podanúr. From its position, commanding the approach to Palghát on the west, and to the Gazalhatti Pass on the north, Coimbatore was formerly of great strategical importance. Originally belonging to the Chera dominions, it fell to the Madúra Náyaks, by whom it was considered one of their chief strongholds, and afterwards

to Mysore. During the wars with Haidar Alí and Tipú Sultán, it changed masters many times. In 1768, the British took it, and again lost it; and in 1783, it was again taken and retaken. In 1790, the Company's forces a third time occupied it, but Tipú, after a siege of five months, compelled the garrison to surrender. In 1792 provisionally, and in 1799 finally, the town was ceded to the British, and from that time it ceased to be a military station. Three miles distant, at Perúr, stands the temple of Mel-Chidambaram (to be distinguished from the Kil-Chidambaram of South Arcot), celebrated for its sanctity, and further remarkable as one of the three Hindu temples spared from destruction by Tipú Sultán.

Colába.—District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KOLABA.

Colepett.—Town in Coorg.—*See* AMATTI.

Coleroon (*Kolladam*).—The northern mouth of the Káveri (Cauvery) river in the Madras Presidency, which leaves the main channel at the upper end of the island of SRIRANGAM, about 10 miles west of Trichinopoli, in lat. 10° 53′ N., and long. 78° 51′ E. After a north-easterly course of about 94 miles, it falls into the Bay of Bengal at Atchavaram, 3½ miles from Porto Novo, in lat. 11° 26′ N., and long. 79° 52′ E. For the greater part of its length the Coleroon forms the boundary between the Districts of Trichinopoli and South Arcot on the left, and Tanjore on the right bank. As compared with the Káveri (Cauvery) proper, its course is more direct and its fall more rapid; and consequently it naturally tends to carry off the larger volume of water. To counteract this tendency and maintain the proper water-supply of the Tanjore delta, the great anicut or dam was constructed in 1856 across the channel of the Coleroon by Sir A. Cotton. A description of this work is given in the article on the KAVERI (CAUVERY). In the same year a second dam, known as the lower anicut, was thrown across the Coleroon, 70 miles below Srírangam, in order to regulate the irrigation of South Arcot. This dam consists of a hollow bar of masonry, 8 feet high and as many broad, the interior being filled with sand rammed down. The total length is 1901 feet, and in the rear is an apron of masonry. The lower anicut also feeds the great Viranam tank by the Vadavár channel, and by several canals irrigates Tanjore District. In South Arcot, the main channels from the Coleroon are the 'Khán Sáhib,' the 'Iron Company's,' the 'Rájá Vaikal,' the Budenkúgi, and the Karangúli canals. The total outlay on the lower anicut and its dependent works was about £30,000, and the increase of revenue since its construction has averaged over £10,000 per annum in South Arcot alone. The Coleroon is affected by the tide for 5 or 6 miles from its mouth. The boat traffic is considerable.

Colgong (*Kahlgáon*).—Town and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*) in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated on the right or south

bank of the Ganges. Lat. 25° 15′ 55″ N., long. 87° 16′ 51″ E. The second largest town in the District. Population (1881), Hindus, 4419; Muhammadans, 1240; 'others,' 13: total 5672, namely, 2707 males and 2965 females. Municipal committee of 10 members, of whom 9 are non-officials. Municipal income (1881–82), £319; expenditure, £321; rate of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head of population within municipal limits. Colgong has for long been a place of commercial importance, owing to its being easily accessible both by railway and river, and is still a centre of trade for the country on all sides for about a dozen miles round. Since 1875, however, a large number of traders have left the town in consequence of the diversion of the main stream of the Ganges, which formerly flowed just under the town, but has receded, although there is now (1883) a channel close under the town, which is open for traffic in the dry season. The former channel of the river is at present occupied by a broad bank of loose sand, across which it is very difficult to convey heavy merchandise. The railway station is on the loop line of the East Indian Railway, 245 miles from Calcutta. The only fact of historical interest connected with Colgong is that Mahmúd Sháh, the last independent King of Bengal, died here in 1539 A.D. After his defeat at Behar, he fled to Gaur; and when that place was invested by the Afghán Sher Sháh, he took refuge with the Emperor Humáyun at Chanár. In his absence, Gaur was stormed and sacked, and his two sons were slain by the Afgháns. He had advanced with the Emperor as far as Colgong, to attack Sher Sháh, when the tidings of his sons' death was brought to him, which so affected him that he died of grief in a few days.

Collegal (*Kálligál*).—*Táluk* in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1062 square miles, containing 1 town and 121 villages. Houses, 12,617. Population (1881) 77,522, namely, 37,890 males and 39,632 females. Land revenue demand (1882–83), £8393. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 6 police stations (*thánás*).

Collegal (*Kálligál*).—Chief town in the *táluk* of the same name, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 10′ N., long. 77° 9′ E. Population (1881) 8462, namely, 7951 Hindus, 493 Muhammadans, and 18 Christians; number of houses, 1347.

Colonelganj.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh; 2 miles north of the Sarju river, 20 miles from Gonda town, and 10 from Bahramghát. Lat. 27° 8′ N., and long. 81° 44′ E. The original village, named Sakrora, was a place of no importance till, in 1780, a force under a British officer was sent by the Nawáb of Oudh to bring to terms the refractory rulers of his trans-Gogra Provinces, and Sakrora became the head-quarters of this force for some years. In 1802, a larger force was stationed here; and a *bázár* named Colonelganj, in honour of the com-

manding officer, came into existence. On the annexation of Oudh, Colonelganj was selected as the military head-quarters for the Commissionership of Gonda and Bahráich. The native troops here, as elsewhere, revolted on the outbreak of the Mutiny; and it was with difficulty that the English officers escaped to the protection of the loyal Rájá of Balrámpur. On the suppression of the rebellion, Colonelganj was abandoned as a military station. Its central position between Bahráich, Gonda, and Balrámpur, however, marked it out as a natural depôt for the rice and oil-seeds of the western portions of the trans-Gogra *tarái*, and it soon became the seat of a flourishing export trade, which has increased of late years, but which is probably doomed to extinction on the completion of the Patná-Bahráich railway. Import trade insignificant, consisting of a little salt, raw and manufactured cotton, and copper vessels. Population (1881), Hindus, 4106, the prevailing castes being Baniás, Pásís, and Ahírs; Muhammadans, 1789: total, 5904, residing in 1243 houses. A few ordinary Hindu temples, two mosques, and a *sarái*, are the principal buildings. Bi-weekly market, police station, Government school, dispensary.

Colonelganj.—River-side mart in Patná District, Bengal, situated west of Gulzárbágh, forming one of the large business quarters of Patná City, and the centre of a large trade in oil-seeds and food-grains.

Combaconum (*Kumbhakonam*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 314 square miles, containing 2 towns and 505 villages. Houses, 61,667. Population (1881) 370,723, namely, 179,538 males and 191,185 females. Land revenue (1882–83), £79,718. The *táluk* is administered by a Head Assistant Collector, with *tahsíldárs*, who preside over 2 civil and 4 criminal courts; number of police stations (*thánás*), 12; strength of police force, 182 men.

Combaconum (*Kumbhakonam*, 'The water-jar mouth'—Sanskrit).—Town and head-quarters of Combaconum *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency; situated in the richest tract of the Káveri (Cauvery) delta, in lat. 10° 58′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 24′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 50,098, namely, 47,908 Hindus, of whom nearly 20 per cent. are Bráhmans, 1228 Muhammadans, 908 Christians, and 54 'others;' number of houses, 7243. Formerly the capital of the Chola kingdom, it is one of the most ancient and sacred towns in the Presidency, and so celebrated for its learning as to have been called the Oxford of Southern India. In addition to a number of Hindu temples, for the most part in good repair and well endowed, it contains a Government college, courts, etc. Being much frequented by visitors and pilgrims, a brisk trade is carried on. Municipal revenue, about £4100; incidence of direct taxation, about 11d. per head.

Comercolly.—Town in Nadiyá District, Bengal.—*See* KUMARKHALI.

Comillah (*Kumillá*).—Chief town and administrative head-quarters

of Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the Gumti river, on the main road from Dacca to Chittagong, in lat. 23° 27′ 55″ N., and long. 91° 13′ 18″ E. Population (1881), Hindus, 5850; Muhammadans, 7351; Christians, 121; 'others,' 50: total, 13,372, namely, males 8029, and females 5343. Constituted a municipality in 1864, the municipal limits covering an area of 2969 acres; income in 1881–82, £1692 —expenditure, £1649; rate of taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head of population within municipal limits. During the rains, the water in the river often rises several feet above the level of the town, which is only saved from periodical inundation by an embankment maintained by the Rájá of Hill Tipperah; but as this is narrow and weak in many parts, the town has sometimes been in great danger. The principal roads are metalled within municipal limits, and lined on both sides with handsome trees. The largest of the many fine tanks in Comillah is the Dharm Ságar, constructed by a Rájá of Tipperah in the first half of the 15th century, which is a mile in circumference. The houses of the European officials, and the District school, are built on its banks. An English church was consecrated by the Bishop of Calcutta in September 1875. Besides the ordinary Government courts and buildings, the houses of the European residents, and the post-office, there are very few brick houses in the place. The Rájá of Tipperah, who owns the land on which the town is built, will not allow his tenants to build any but mat or mud houses, unless they pay him so large a *nazar* (conciliatory present) as to practically amount to a prohibition. Bridged unmetalled roads, passable for carts all the year round, connect Comillah with Dáúd Kandi, Chittagong, Company-ganj, the Titas river, Hajíganj, Laksham Bíbí Bázár, and the Rálmai hills. Comilla has been fixed upon as the starting-point for the projected railway northwards to Assam and Cachar.

Comorin (*Kumárí; Kannia-Kumárí*).—Headland in the State of Travancore, Madras Presidency, the extreme southern point of India. Lat. 8° 4′ 20″ N., long. 77° 35′ 35″ E. From Cape Comorin the chain of the Western Gháts runs northwards. In the *Periplus*, reference is made to a harbour here; but this has now disappeared, owing to encroachments of the sea, although a well of fresh water in a rock a little way out to sea seems to support the theory of its former existence.

Comorin (*Kumárí*, 'a virgin').—Village near the cape of the same name. Lat. 8° 4′ N., long. 77° 36′ E. Houses, 430. Population (1881) 2247. The bathing festival referred to by the Greek geographers is still continued in honour of Durgá, the virgin goddess after whom the place is named.

Condavid.—Town in Kistna District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KONDAVIR.

Conjevaram (*Kánchívaram ; Kánchípuram ; Kien-chi-pu-lo* of Hwen Thsang).—*Táluk* of Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency. Area, 447 square miles. Houses, 30,411. Population (1881) 185,649, namely, 91,909 males and 93,740 females. In no other *táluk* in the District are the women in excess of the men. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—176,506 Hindus; 3814 Muhammadans; 5205 Christians, nearly all Roman Catholics; and 124 'others.' A low-lying *táluk*, with a stony soil, and only wooded by scrub-jungle. Watered by the Pálár and Cortelliar rivers. Land revenue demand, £39,279. The *táluk*, which is subject in civil matters to the jurisdiction of the *munsif's* court at Trivellore, contains 3 criminal courts, with 11 police stations (*thánás*); strength of police force, 165 men.

Conjevaram (*Kánchívaram*).—Town and head-quarters of Conjevaram *táluk*, Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 49′ 45″ N., long. 79° 45′ E. Houses, 7179. Population (1881) 37,275, namely, Hindus, 35,989; Muhammadans, 1172; Christians, 28; and 'others,' 86. Area of town site, 5858 acres. About 11 per cent. of the population are Bráhmans, and 17 per cent. weavers of a caste peculiar to this portion of the District. Municipal revenue for 1881–82, £2412; incidence of taxation, about 8d. per head of rateable population. Situated on the Trunk road 46 miles south-west of Madras. The branch line of the South Indian Railway from Chengalpat to Arkonam passes through the eastern extremity of the town. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, Conjevaram contains the usual subordinate magisterial and revenue courts, jail, dispensary, school, etc. But it is chiefly interesting as being a place of special sanctity. Conjevaram is one of the seven holy cities of India, and has been called the 'Benares of the South.' Hwen Thsang speaks of it as the capital of Dravida. It was then a great Buddhist centre; but about the 8th century began a Jain epoch, and traces of this religion still exist in the neighbourhood. To this succeeded the period of Hindu predominance, and the Vijáyanagar Rájás (who had treated the Jains liberally) endowed the sacred places of their own religion with great magnificence. Two of the temples, the largest in Southern India, were built by Krishna Raya about 1509; and for many smaller pagodas, *choultries* and *agrahárams* (Bráhman resting-houses and alms-houses), the town is indebted to the same family. The lofty *gopuras* (pyramids), the thousand-pillared temple, with its splendid porch and fine jewels, attract the chief attention of visitors (*see* CHIDAMBARAM). The great annual fair held in May is attended, in prosperous years, by as many as 50,000 pilgrims. 'Kánchipur' was an important city of the Chola kingdom, and in the 14th century the capital of Tondamandalam. After the fall of the Vijayanagar family in 1644, it was subject to the Muhammadan

kings of Golconda, and at a later date became part of the Arcot dominions. In 1751, Clive, returning from Arcot, took the town from the French, but had, in the same year, again to contest its possession with Rájá Sáhib. In 1757, the French, beaten off in an attack upon the pagoda, set fire to the town. In 1758, the British garrison was temporarily withdrawn, on account of the expected advance of the French upon Madras, but was soon sent back with reinforcements; and during the siege of the capital, and the subsequent wars of the Karnatic, this town played an important part as a depôt and cantonment. A few miles distant, at Pullalúr, is the battle-field where General Baillie's column was cut to pieces in 1780 by Haidar Alí.

Contai (*Kánthi*).—Sub-division of Midnapur District, Bengal, lying between 21° 37′ 15″ and 22° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 87° 27′ 15″ and 88° 1′ 30″ E. long. Area, 849 square miles, with 2385 villages or towns and 55,418 occupied houses. Population (1881), Hindus, 457,722; Muhammadans, 24,176; Sikhs, 42; Christians, 20; and 'others,' 36: total, 481,996, namely, males 242,277, and females 239,719; average density of population, 568 persons per square mile; average number of houses per square mile, 71; persons per village, 202; persons per house, 8·7. The Sub-division, which was created 1st January 1852, comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Contai, Raghunáthpur, Egra, Khejiri (Kedgeree), Patáspur, and Bhagwánpur. In 1883, it contained two revenue and two magisterial courts, with a regular police force 158 strong, besides 1352 village watchmen.

Contai (*Kánthi*).—Head-quarters of Contai Sub-division, Midnapur District, Bengal, and of a police circle (*thána*). The village contains the usual sub-divisional buildings, two *múnsif's* courts, and a higher-class English school.

Coompta (*Kumpta*). — Sub-division and town, Kánara District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KUMPTA.

Coonoor (*Kúnúr*).—Town and sanitarium in the Nílgiri Hills District, Madras Presidency. Situated in lat. 11° 20′ N., and long. 76° 50′ E., 6000 feet above the sea-level, at the south-east corner of the Nílgiri plateau, and at the head of the principal pass (the Coonoor Ghát) from the plains; distant 363 miles by rail from Madras, and 12 from Utákamand (Ootacamund). Houses, 1450. Population (1881) about 4778, being 3247 Hindus (chiefly Pariahs), and the remainder Europeans, with their establishments, a fluctuating number. The municipal limits extend over about 7 square miles; the municipal revenue realized in 1881 was about £2000; incidence of taxation, about 2s. 7d. per head of population. A carriage road, 21 miles long, connects Coonoor with the station of Mettapalliem, the terminus of the Nilgiri branch of the Madras (South-Western) Railway; but a Righi railway to Coonoor from the terminal station is about to be constructed.

Coonoor contains a sub-magistrate's court, etc., hospital, four places of worship (1 Roman Catholic, 1 Church of England, and 2 of other denominations), and many schools, a library and shops and hotels for the convenience of Europeans. In the neighbourhood are several tea and coffee estates. Coonoor is one of the principal sanitaria of the Presidency, and second only to Utákamand (Ootacamund) in natural advantages. The town is built on the sides of the beautiful basin formed by the expansion of the Jackatalla valley, at the mouth of a great gorge, surrounded by wooded hills. It possesses a cool and equable climate, the mean annual temperature in the shade being 62° F. In the warmer months the thermometer fluctuates between 55° and 75°; in the colder months, between 38° and 68°. The average annual rainfall is 76 inches, distributed in normal years over 112 days. The rate of mortality is remarkably low, and no particular ailments can be said to be characteristic of the place. The town is well kept, but owing to increase of population, etc., the drainage is in much need of improvement; it has about 20 miles of excellent roads and beautiful pleasure drives, along the sides of which grow hedges and roses, while the fuchsia, dahlia, and heliotrope attain the proportions of shrubs. Altogether, it forms one of the most lovely hill stations in India, and commands magnificent views of mountains, precipices, great stretches of hill forests, and the plains spreading out in a vast expanse of fertility beneath. The European settlement is on the upper plateau; the native quarter on the lower slopes of the valley.

Coorg (*Kurg; Kodagu*, lit. 'steep mountains').—Territory or Province in Southern India, under the administration of the Supreme Government, through the Mysore Resident, who is also Chief Commissioner of Coorg; situated between 11° 56′ and 12° 50′ N. lat., and between 75° 25′ and 76° 14′ E. long. Total area, according to the most recent estimate of the Survey Department, 1583 square miles, the greatest length from north to south being 60, and from west to east 40 miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 178,302. The chief town and seat of administration is MERKARA, in 75° 46′ N. lat., and 12° 26′ E. long.; population (1881) 8383, including 2156 returned as being in the cantonment.

Coorg is bounded along its entire western frontier by the mountain chain of the Western Gháts, which separates it from the Madras Districts of Malabár and South Kánara. This range curves somewhat inland, so as to serve also to some extent as the northern and southern boundary. On the north, Coorg is partially separated from the forest highlands of Mysore by the rivers Kumáradhárí and Hemavatí. On the east it merges in the general table-land of Mysore, the boundary for some distance being marked by the river Káveri (Cauvery).

History.—Coorg has always been known in history as the home of a

brave and independent race of mountaineers, who maintained their freedom against the outnumbering forces of Haidar Alí, and only yielded to the British power after a sharp struggle, the English Government conceding to them the maintenance of their civil and religious usages, and respect for their national characteristics. At the present day the native tribe of Coorgs, though only numbering some 27,000 souls, preserve all the marks of a dominant race. They cultivate their hereditary lands on a feudal tenure, bear arms at their pleasure, and treat with British officials through their head-men on terms of honourable equality. No people in India have given more decisive proofs of their loyalty to the British crown.

Whatever may have been the true character of the earlier history of Coorg, the Bráhmans, on finding their way into the country, enshrouded the current legends and traditions of Coorg in Puránic lore, in the Káveri *Purána*, forming an episode of comparatively recent date in four chapters of the *Skánda* or *Kártikeya Purána*, and glorifying the river Káveri, the sources of which are in Coorg. Local tradition lends colouring to the theory that the Coorgs are descended from the conquering army of a Kadamba king, who ruled in the north-west of Mysore about the 6th century A.D. The earliest trustworthy evidence that his house exerted some authority in these parts is manifested by certain stone inscriptions found in Southern Coorg, which record grants of land by monarchs of the Gangá dynasty dated in the 9th century. But it is not probable that the mountain fastnesses of Coorg were ever permanently subjugated by the rulers of the lowlands. The Muhammadan chronicler Ferishta, writing at the end of the 16th century, casually mentions that Coorg was governed by its own princes. According to tradition, Coorg was at this period divided into 12 *kombus* or districts, each ruled by an independent chieftain, called a *náyak*. The names of several of the families of these *náyaks* are still held in veneration by the people; but the chiefs themselves all finally succumbed to the wily encroachments of the Háleri *pálegárs*, who founded the line of Coorg Rájás expelled by the British in 1834.

The origin of this Háleri dynasty is obscure. It is certain that they were aliens to the native Coorgs who now reside in Central and South Coorg, for they belonged to the Lingáyat sect of Hindus who are the chief inhabitants in the portion of Coorg to the north and east of Háleri, and whose influence was great in the neighbouring country of Mysore; whereas the Coorgs retain to the present day their own crude forms of demon and ancestor worship. However this may be, they exercised for many generations absolute authority over the people; and, despite their bloodthirsty tyranny, they were universally accepted as the national leaders. It is commonly supposed that the founder of the dynasty was a younger scion of the family who ruled at Ikkeri in

Shimoga District, known as the *pálegárs* of Keladi or Bednúr. He is said to have first settled at Háleri, whence he rapidly extended his power over the whole of Coorg. The history of the Coorg Rájás is officially chronicled in the *Rájendra-náma*, a work compiled about 1807 in Kánarese by order of Dodda Vira Rájendra, and translated into English by Lieutenant Abercromby in the following year. This interesting native document may be accepted as fairly trustworthy. It comprises a period of 175 years, from 1633 to 1807.

The most brilliant chapter in the history of Coorg is the resistance offered to Haidar Alí and his son Tipú Sultán. When all the rest of Southern India fell almost without a blow before the Muhammadan conqueror, this warlike people never surrendered their independence; but, despite terrible disasters, finally allied themselves on honourable terms with the British to overthrow the common enemy. At one time all seemed lost. Haidar Alí had invaded the country, and carried away the Rájá and all the royal family prisoners into Mysore. Tipú followed in his father's path with more than his father's ferocity. He resolved to remove the entire race of Coorgs, and actually deported many thousand persons to Seringapatam, and enforced on the males the rite of Islám. The land he granted out to Musalmán landlords, on whom it was enjoined as an imperative duty to search for and slay the surviving inhabitants. It was reserved for a prince of the blood-royal to rescue the Coorgs from this sentence of extermination. Vira Rájendra, the hero of Coorg history, and the Coorg model of a warrior king, escaped from his prison in Mysore, and raised the standard of independence on his native hills. The Muhammadan garrison was forthwith expelled, and a successful guerilla warfare kept up until the intervention of Lord Cornwallis finally guaranteed Coorg from danger. On the restoration of peace in 1799 by the death of Tipú Sultán, the remaining exiled Coorgs returned to their country. But new troubles began. Vira Rájendra himself, and also his successor on the throne, appear to have been cursed with the senseless ferocity which so often accompanies irresponsible power. By their subjects they were reverenced almost as gods, and in their countless acts of cruelty they rivalled the most sanguinary deities of the Hindu Pantheon. Repeated remonstrances from the British Resident at Mysore proved ineffectual; and at last, in 1834, Vira Rájendra having taken umbrage at the shelter given at Mysore to his brother-in-law Chenna Basápa, Lord William Bentinck, then Governor-General of India, resolved on armed intervention. A British force of 6000 men entered Coorg in four divisions. Though two of the invading columns were bravely repulsed by the Coorg militia, the rest penetrated to Merkárá, and achieved the entire subjugation of the country. The Rájá surrendered himself to the Political Agent, Colonel Fraser, who issued a proclamation dated May 7, 1834,

announcing that, in accordance with the general wish of the inhabitants, Coorg was transferred to the government of the Company. The people were assured that their civil and religious usages would be respected, and that the greatest desire would invariably be shown to augment their security, comfort, and happiness.

The pledges given on this occasion (1834) have been faithfully carried out on both sides. In 1837, however, a disaffection originating with the Gaudas of the Tálu country, in South Kánara, spread also into Coorg; and a rising against the British Government was planned by the intrigues of the Bráhman Dewán Lakshminaráyana, and the impostor Abhrambara, which was promptly put down by the authorities, aided by a band of faithful Coorgs, who were rewarded with *jágirs*, pensions, and gold and silver medals. Coorg has ever since shown a conspicuous example of a brave and intelligent race, ruled by the British with the minimum of change and interference, and steadily advancing in material prosperity consequent on settled rule, and the introduction of coffee cultivation. The Rájá retired to Benares, with a pension of Rs. 6000 (£600) a month. In 1852 he was allowed to visit England, where he died in 1862. His daughter, the Princess Victoria Gauramma, was baptized into the Christian faith, with the Queen for her sponsor. She married an English officer, and died in 1864. At the present day, a few descendants of the family reside at Benares, in receipt of small pensions from Government.

Physical Aspects.—The whole area of Coorg is mountainous, clothed with primeval forest or grassy glades, and broken by but few cultivated valleys. The lofty barrier range of the Western Gháts forms the continuous western frontier for a distance of more than 60 miles. The highest peaks are Tadiándamol, 5729 feet, and Pushpagiri, 5548 feet above the sea. The western slope of this range drops in a succession of precipitous terraces towards the sea; but on the east a confused network of spurs and minor ridges runs out into Coorg, some of which attain considerable elevations. The town of Merkárá is situated on a table-land, about 3500 feet above sea-level. But even this plateau is broken by hills and steep valleys, leaving but little space for cultivation. The chief rivers of Coorg are the upper waters of the Káveri (Cauvery) and its tributaries, the Lakshmantirtha, the Hemavatí, and the Suvarnavatí, with its tributaries the Hattihole and Madapur, which flow eastward into Mysore. On the west, the Barapole and the Kallahole, uniting their waters on the Coorg frontier, and a few minor streams, break their way through the Gháts, and precipitate themselves on the lowlands of Malabár. None of the rivers are navigable. They flow in narrow valleys, usually through dense jungle; and they are little used for artificial irrigation. The geological formation of the mountains belongs to the metamorphic class of rocks, chiefly granite, syenite, and

mica schist. The weathering of these rocks, under the influence of rain, wind, and sun, has produced a deep surface soil of great fertility, which is annually renewed by the decomposition of the virgin forest; but after the denudation of so many hill slopes for coffee cultivation, the deterioration of steep land by the wash of the monsoon rains has been rapid and ruinous to once flourishing estates. Stone and laterite are quarried for building purposes, and gold has been found on the Athol estate on the Perambádi *ghát* with graphite, and may probably be found sparsely distributed in the Bráhmagiri hills, and in the quartz reefs in the valley of the Káveri below Fraser-pet. Iron-ore also exists, but owing to the difficulty of procuring skilled labour, is not worked. The natural wealth of Coorg is represented by the boundless forests, which vary in character in different parts of the territory. The mountain forests, known as *mále-kádu*, which clothe the Western Gháts are chiefly marked by evergreen trees. Conspicuous among these is the *pún* (Calophyllum angustifolium), which often rises to the height of 100 feet, and supplies excellent spars for ships. The other timber-trees in this tract include ebony (Diospyros ebenaster), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), iron-wood (Mesua ferrea), and white cedar or *tún* (Cedrela toona); and the whole scene is diversified by clusters of brilliant flowers and fruits, gigantic creepers, and numerous varieties of fern. The forests in the lower hill ranges and passes in the eastern portion of Coorg are known as *kanive-kádu*. This is pre-eminently the region of bamboo, teak, and sandal-wood. The bamboos in the south of Coorg are specially famous. They form forests of their own, rising in clusters to the height of 60, and sometimes even 100 feet. The teak (Tectona grandis) and the sandal-wood (Santalum album) are very local in their range, the best teak trees being found in the Government reserved forest of Nalkeri, in the *táluk* of Kiggatnád. The timber of both is a valuable monopoly of Government. Other timber-trees are the black-wood (Dalbergia latifolia), *maddi* (Terminalia coriacea), *hone* or *kino* (Pterocarpus marsupium), *dinduga* (Conocarpus latifolius), and *hedde-mara* (Nauclea cordifolia). Many products of commercial value, such as wood, oil, fibre, honey, and resin, are collected in the jungle, which also abounds in wild animals; and every native Coorg is an enthusiastic sportsman. Among large game may be enumerated tigers, leopards, bears, elephants, bison, *sámbhar* deer, jungle sheep, and wild hog. A reward of £5 is now given by Government for the destruction of every tiger, and £3, 10s. for every leopard. In the days of the Coorg Rájás, elephant and tiger hunting were regal sports, and several tiger-cubs were generally kept about the palace. The number both of tigers and leopards is still considerable, but wild elephants have now become comparatively scarce, and their indiscriminate slaughter has been prohibited.

Population.—In 1836, shortly after the British occupation, the population of Coorg was returned at only 65,437 souls. The first regular Census, conducted by actual counting, was effected on the night of 14th November 1871, and gave a total of 168,312. The second regular Census was taken on the 17th February 1881, when the population numbered 178,302 persons, showing an increase of 6 per cent. during the past decade. The following table exhibits the area, population, and density in each *táluk* of the Province as returned by the Census of 1881:—

TALUKS.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in 1881.	Density per Square Mile.
Kiggatnád,	410·45	31,230	76·08
Padinalknád,	399·90	28,219	70·56
Nanjarájpatná,	263·89	26,984	102·25
Merkárá,	216·30	34,088	157·59
Yedenalknád,	201·45	41,370	205·36
Yelsavirshíme,	90·82	16,411	180·70
Total,	1,582·81	178,302	112·64

The Province contains 502 villages, and but one town of over 5000 inhabitants; 22,357 inhabited and 3233 uninhabited houses; which gives the following averages:—Villages per square mile, ·31; houses per square mile, 16·16; number of persons per occupied house, 7·97. Classified according to sex, there are 100,439 males and 77,863 females; proportion of males, 77·5 per cent. This undue preponderance of males is explained by the fact that more men are employed as labourers on the coffee estates than women. The disproportion would have been greater had the date of the Census been a month or two earlier, for at the time it was taken the picking season was over, and many of the labourers had returned to their homes in Mysore. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years of age, 30,986 boys and 28,911 girls; total, 59,897, or 33·6 per cent. of the total population. The division of the people according to birthplace shows—154 Europeans, 2 Americans, 1 Australian, and 129 Eurasians; 103,437 natives of Coorg, 24,895 of Madras, and 48,688 of Mysore; 318 immigrants from Haidarábád, 593 from Bombay, 68 from Bengal, and 17 from Kandahár. The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy; but it may be mentioned, as indicating the importance of the coffee industry, that 64,087 persons, or 35·95 per cent., are returned as labourers, as compared with only 33,957 agriculturists, or 19·0 per cent. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes, and including

Coorgs), 162,489, or 91·1 per cent.; Muhammadans, 12,541, or 7·0 per cent.; Christians, 3152, or 1·7 per cent.; and 120 'others,' including 21 Pársís and 99 Jains. The Bráhmans number 2445, chiefly belonging to the Smartta or Sivaite sect. Of those claiming to be Kshatriyas, the Rájputs number 351, and the Rájpinde, or connections of the late ruling family, 129. The Vaisyas, or trading caste, are 225 in number, almost exclusively Komátis. Other castes of good social standing number 83,834, among whom the most numerous caste is the cultivating Wokaliga (16,808), including many coolie immigrants from Mysore; the Lingáyat (10,443) and Jain (99) castes, being engaged in trade, and many of the former in agriculture. Low castes number 21,100, and the wild tribes are returned at 54,630, but many belonging to the lower castes have been erroneously classified as such.

The native tribes of Coorgs or Kodagus, who were once the dominant race in the country, are only 27,033 in number, or 15·6 per cent. of the total population. They and the members of other castes known as the Gaváda, Mopla, Heggáde, Aimbokal, Bautar, and Ayeri, wear a national dress, bear arms at their pleasure, and cultivate their hereditary lands on a feudal tenure known as *jama*. They pride themselves on their loyalty to the British Crown. Their origin is unknown; but for the last two centuries they can be recognised as a compact body of mountaineers, resembling a Highland clan rather than a Hindu caste. Within the last decade they have increased by 6 per cent. A sub-division of them, called Amma Coorgs, who number 475, are more strict in their mode of life, and are perhaps the descendants of an indigenous priesthood. They abstain from spirituous liquors, and are vegetarians, holding much the same place among the Coorgs as Bráhmans do among the Hindus. While this class has increased during the last decade, the Bráhman element has decreased, due no doubt to the well-known aversion of the Coorgs to Bráhmanical influence. In physique, the Coorgs are not inferior to any natives of India. The men are muscular, broad-chested, strong-limbed, and tall. Their mode of life and pride of race impart to their whole bearing an air of manly independence and dignified self-assertion, well sustained by their picturesque costume. This consists of a long coat (*kupasa*), of white or blue cotton, or dark cloth, open in front and reaching below the knee. Round the waist is wound a red or blue sash of cotton or silk, which holds the never-absent Coorg knife with ivory handle and chains of silver. The head-dress is a red kerchief, or a peculiarly-fashioned turban, large and flat at the top, and covering a portion of the back of the neck. For ornaments they wear a necklace of berries, and ear-rings and bracelets of silver or gold. Some of the women are strikingly handsome and well-shaped. Their holiday costume is a

tight-fitting jacket, of white or blue cotton, with long sleeves. The skirt, gathered behind, is formed of a long piece of white muslin or blue cotton-stuff, tied round the waist and falling in graceful folds to the feet. Contrary to the custom of other Hindu women, they tie a long handkerchief over their hair as a cap, an end falling gracefully behind. The women do all the domestic work, and also bear a large share of the labours of the farm. When not engaged in labour, the men enjoy a dignified leisure, or range through the forest, gun in hand, in search of game. The height of their ambition is to be entrusted with some Government post. They rarely marry until they have attained the age of sixteen years. The old custom of polyandry is no longer practised as a national rite, but may occur in isolated cases. Divorce and widow-marriage, especially by brothers-in-law, are recognised institutions, sanctioned by the council of village elders, or *takkás*. Polygamy is permitted by custom, in case of sterility of the first wife or want of male issue, but such cases are of rare occurrence.

The Coorgs have a language of their own, believed to be a dialect of Kánarese, which is intelligible only to themselves and to their former slaves, the Holeyás and Yeránás. It is derived from the Dravidian languages, chiefly Malayálam, Túlu, Kánarese, and Tamil, and has been reduced to writing in Kánarese letters. It is rich in forms, and admirably suited for colloquial converse, and for expressing easy-flowing poetry of a humorous or solemn strain, as their old chants or Palamés attest.

The Muhammadans in Coorg are divided between Labbays and Máppilás (Moplas) from the Malabár coast, and immigrants from the Deccan. Out of the total of 3152 Christians, Europeans number 228 and Eurasians 287, leaving 2637 for the native converts, who are mostly Roman Catholic immigrants from Kánara, of the Konkani caste. According to another principle of division, there are 644 Protestants and 2508 Roman Catholics.

There are only 2 towns in Coorg with a population of more than 3000 persons each. MERKARA, or Mahádevapet, the civil headquarters of the Province, has 8383 inhabitants; VIRA-RAJENDRA-PET, 4576. Fraser-pet, on the eastern frontier, 1000 feet below Merkárá, is a pleasant retreat during the rainy season; formerly it used to be the residence of the British Superintendent. Merkárá and Vira-rájendra-pet have been constituted municipalities, with an aggregate income in 1881–82 of £1592, giving an average municipal taxation of 2s. 5d. per head. Municipal committees have also been formed in the small towns of Fraser-pet, Somwar-pet, and Kodli-pet. Amatti and Gonikopál are rising townships in the new coffee district in South Coorg, known familiarly as the 'Bamboo.'

Coorg possesses some remains of archæological interest. Cairns or dólmens have been found in considerable numbers, especially near

Vira-rájendra-pet; and since attention was first attracted to them in 1868, several of them have been opened. They conceal kistvaens, very similar to those of Europe, composed of four upright granite slabs about 4 feet high, roofed with a larger slab. Some of these kistvaens are arranged in regular groups, others are surrounded by a circle of smaller stones. Inside is found pottery, containing bones, ashes, iron spear-heads, and beads. No trace is now preserved of the race that erected these memorials. Of a more recent date are the *kolle kallu*, or sculptured tombstones in honour of warriors slain in battle. The figures show that these were erected by Hindus of the Lingáyat sect. The Coorg race has left its warlike memorials in the *kadangas* or earthworks, which stretch over hill and dal through the length and breadth of the land. Some of these *kadangas* are 40 feet from summit to bottom of ditch, and they are often taken along hill-sides having an angle of 80° F. They were evidently constructed as fortifications, but they may also have served to mark the boundaries of the *náds*, or local divisions, into which the country was divided. Of the palaces once occupied by the Coorg Rájás, the one in the Merkárá fort alone remains in good order. It is used for the public offices, and as the residence of the Commissioner. The Rájás' tombs at the head of Madepet are conspicuous and in good preservation. There is also a Hindu temple of some pretensions in the valley below the fort; and like the tombs, it is in the Muhammadan style of architecture.

Agriculture.—Cultivation is confined in Coorg proper, above the barriers, to the numerous valleys between the eastern spurs of the Gháts and along the banks of the river Káveri and its affluents. Even in the narrowest valley, wherever the plough is possible, the soil is industriously laid out in terraces for rice cultivation. Excluding the forest tracts planted with coffee and cardamoms, the total cultivated area of Coorg in 1881–82 was 74,357 acres, of which 72,940 acres were under rice, and 1417 acres under other food-grains. Several varieties of rice are grown, the most common being the large-grained *dodda-batta*. A large amount of labour is expended on the cultivation. The seed is sown about the beginning of June in nurseries, which have previously been ploughed several times, and are always so situated as to command a perennial supply of water, except in the Kiggatnád *táluk*, where the rainfall not infrequently proves insufficient. The seedlings are planted out in July and August, and the harvest is gathered in December and January. Such is the richness of the soil and the abundance of the natural water-supply, that the rice crop usually yields a return of forty-fold; the straw is in great demand for thatching purposes, and when sold to the planters, realizes enough to pay the Government dues on the land. Other crops grown only in parts of the Nanjarájpatná and Yelsavirshíme *táluks* to the east and north-east of the Province, are *ragi*,

gram, coriander, oil-seed, hemp, a little tobacco, sugar-cane, and cotton. No wheat is grown. Plantains, oranges, and the toddy-yielding wild sago-palm, are to be seen round the homestead of every Coorg peasant. But the two most valuable products of Coorg are coffee and cardamoms. Coffee is said to have been introduced from Mysore in the days of the native Rájás. The first European plantation was opened in 1854. By 1881, the total number of coffee estates was 4806 (212 only being owned by Europeans), covering an area of 77,474 acres, or a little more than $\frac{1}{13}$th of the whole Province. The area of land held by the European planters, in 1881, was 41,507 acres, and by natives, 35,967 acres. The average size of each estate held by the Europeans is 196 acres, and by the natives, 8 acres. The assessment paid by the former was £7613, and by the latter £6640. Of the whole area, 40,350 acres were in bearing, producing on an average 3 cwt. per acre, though the average yield on most European estates, which are much better cultivated than native, is as much as 7 cwts. per acre. The coffee produced is over 6000 tons. Taking the average cost of cultivation at £12 per acre on European estates, and £4 on native, each cwt. of coffee costs £2, 13s. 4d. The number of persons present on the estates is generally about 27,000, to which 10,000 more may be added during the picking season. The yearly sum spent on coffee cultivation is about £320,000, of which about 60 per cent. is paid as wages for labour. The value of the coffee produced, calculated at the average selling price of £3 per cwt. on the spot, is about £360,000. The industry has passed through many vicissitudes. Rash speculation in the early years caused unsuitable land to be taken up, and the forest was recklessly cleared of trees that would have furnished valuable shade. The cultivation of Liberian coffee after a fair trial has proved a failure. In recent times, the 'bug' and 'white borer,' and leaf disease, especially on the Gháts estates, have destroyed the hopes of the planter, when at last they seemed on the point of realization; but in the 'Bamboo' district in South Coorg, prospects are brighter and results more satisfactory. Considerable attention has been paid to the cultivation of cinchona, especially on those estates in which coffee has not succeeded. From returns which have been obtained from planters, the extent of land under cinchona may be given at 771 acres, and the number of plants put down, at 617,156. The cardamom plant (Elettaria cardamomum) grows wild in the evergreen jungles of the Western Gháts, at an elevation of from 2000 to 5000 feet. These jungles are leased out by the Government for a term of ten years at a lump sum of £30,000. The cardamom-yielding tracts demand a good deal of attention, and the gathering of the crop in October involves much hardship, as the jungles at that season are infested with innumerable leeches and poisonous snakes. It is estimated that a 'cardamom

garden' ¼ acre in extent will yield 12½ lbs. of dry cardamoms; the contingent expenditure is quite insignificant. Among plants introduced by European enterprise, may be mentioned Cinchona succirubra, the Australian gum tree (Eucalyptus globulus), rhea nettle (Bœhmeria nivea), Manilla hemp (Musa textilis), the cocoa tree (Theobroma cacao), and many English fruits, vegetables, and flowers. The cultivation of the tea-plant has as yet attracted little attention. The cultivation of cocoa, oil-seeds, and the Eucalyptus tree was only introduced a few years ago, and is purely in an experimental stage. The agricultural statistics for 1881–82 show a total stock of 109,762 horned cattle, 5729 sheep and goats, 12,242 pigs, 177 horses, 378 ponies, 350 donkeys, 37,523 ploughs, 27 boats, and 481 carts. The average rent per acre for land suited for rice in 1881–82 was from 3s. 3¾d. to 6s. 8¼d., the average produce per acre being 820 lbs. The prices per *maund* of 80 lbs. were, for rice, 6s. 11¼d.; for wheat, 9s. 10d.; for cotton, 56s.; for sugar, 34s.; for salt, 8s. 8¼d.; and for *ragi*, 4s. The wages for skilled labour were 2s. per day; for unskilled, 6d. per day.

Manufactures and Commerce.— Almost every article used in the country requires to be imported. Manufactures do not flourish to any extent in Coorg, consequent on the great demand for labour for agricultural purposes, and the higher rates of wages prevailing. The manufacture of the ordinary coarse cloth worn by the lower classes of the people is carried on at the villages of Sirangala, Somwar-pet, Sanivarsante, and Kodli-pet in North Coorg; at the first-named place the red and dark-blue sashes worn by the poorer classes of Coorgs are also produced. About a dozen artisans add to their means by making the knives which are worn by the people as part of their ordinary dress. The sheaths are usually mounted in silver, and some of them are of considerable value. The number of knives turned out yearly does not exceed 200, and their value is estimated at £600. The steel used is of local manufacture, and of inferior quality. Large tiles, known as 'Mangalore' tiles, for which there is a considerable local demand, are manufactured at a tilery at Merkárá. The clay obtained is of excellent quality, and some of the tiles manufactured have been found to stand a greater strain than those turned out at Mangalore itself. A few pot-makers and braziers may be found. Local traffic passes along many paths and cross country roads. Two military trunk roads run across the country from Mysore to the western coast. According to the statistics of traffic at the toll-bars, 34,399 laden carts and 31,144 laden pack-bullocks passed along these *ghát* roads in 1881–82. The following estimates are given of the total trade of Coorg in 1881–82:—Exports, £442,693, chiefly consisting of coffee (122,510 cwts., valued at £367,530), grain and pulse (38,687 cwts., valued at £9237), cardamoms (600 cwts., valued at £14,400), and

timber (£3180); imports, £194,230, including piece-goods (£30,000), wines and spirits (£10,000), food-grains (£22,196), and salt (£16,625). The principal external markets are the ports of Mangalore, Cannanore, and Tellicherri on the Malabár coast, and Bangalore in Mysore. Local transactions are conducted at weekly fairs, the largest of which are held on Wednesdays at Vira-rájendra-pet, on Fridays at Merkárá, on Saturdays at Sanivarsante, on Sundays at Suntikoppa, Amatti, and Gonikopál, and on Mondays at Somwar-pet, all of which are largely attended.

Administration.—Since the assumption of the Government by the British, the indigenous system of administration has been interfered with as little as possible. The chief resident British officer is styled Commissioner and District Judge, who discharges, in addition to his proper duties, the combined functions of Inspector-General of Prisons and Police, Director of Public Instruction, and Conservator of Forests in Coorg, and who is subordinate to the Chief Commissioner or Resident of Mysore. Under him are two Assistant Commissioners—one a European, who is also a District Magistrate, and the other a Coorg. For administrative purposes, the territory is divided into 6 *táluks*, viz. Kiggatnád, Padinalknád, Nanjarájpatná, Merkárá, Yedenalknád, Yelsavirshíme, each under the charge of a native official styled a *subahdár*. The *táluks* are again sub-divided into 24 *náds* or *hoblis*. Each *nád* contains an average of about 68 square miles, and forms the separate charge of a subordinate official called a *parpattegar*. The following table shows the revenue and expenditure of Coorg in 1881–82:—

BALANCE-SHEET OF COORG FOR 1881–82.

REVENUE.	£	EXPENDITURE.	£
Land Revenue, . .	30,724	Civil and Political, . .	4,383
Forests, . . .	9,959	Judicial, ...	3,510
Excise on Spirits and Drugs, . . .	11,961	Police, ...	1,445
Stamps, . . .	7,691	Military, ...	11,724
Law and Justice, .	464	Telegraph and Post-Office, .	2,285
Interest, . . .	224	Ecclesiastical, . . .	697
Miscellaneous, . .	64	Public Works, . . .	13,602
Jails, ...	881	Education, ...	2,249
Registration, . .	421	Miscellaneous, . . .	445
Education, . .	218	Local Funds, . . .	4,342
Post-Office, . .	1,598	District and Village Officers,	14,306
Public Works, . .	529	Allowances and Assignments, ...	2,279
Military Refund, .	168	Refunds, ...	927
Telegraph, . .	546		
Excluded Local Funds,	2,402		
Incorporated Local Funds, . . .	2,846	Surplus, . . .	8,502
Total, .	70,696	Total, .	70,696

The preceding table shows a surplus revenue of £8502, even including the heavy charges for the army and public works. The removal of the Coorg garrison to Vellore in Madras, which has recently been carried out, consequent on late reductions in the Madras army, increased the surplus in the balance-sheet for 1882–83 to £21,145. The land revenue is chiefly derived from three sources—(1) *jamá* lands, held in inalienable tenure by the once dominant race of Coorgs, at the rate of 10s. per acre (100 *bhattis*) of wet land upon the condition of military and police service; (2) *ságu*, the ordinary cultivating tenure, at a fixed rate of about 20s. per acre; (3) coffee lands, which are now assessed at a rate of 4s. per acre. *Bánes* (uplands) are attached to the rice-fields for wood and pasturage; many of them are cultivated with coffee under shade. Such plantations are free from assessment when they do not exceed 10 acres. Nearly all the forest land suited for coffee cultivation has been taken up. On land which is available being applied for, it is sold by auction according to the Waste Land Rules, after being surveyed and the timber valued. It is held rent free for the first four years, and at the rate of 2s. an acre during the next eight years, after which the full assessment is charged. The forest revenue is chiefly derived from the sale of timber and cardamom leases. In 1881–82, the sales of timber, including sandalwood, realized £3827.

The regular police force consists of about 2 officers and 188 men, maintained in towns only at a total cost of about £1874 a year, inclusive of the Coorg guard, employed to protect the treasury and jail. The rural or village police is composed of about 3979 *jamá ráyats*, or native Coorgs, holding their lands on a feudal tenure, from whom duty for half a month in each year is expected. These figures show 113 policemen to every square mile of the area, or 1 policeman to every 43 persons of the population. During the year 1881, 1363 criminal cases of all kinds were instituted; 2000 persons were put on their trial, of whom 821, or 41 per cent., were convicted, being 1 person convicted of an offence in every 217 of the population. By far the greater number of convictions were for assault, criminal force, and offences against local laws. In the same year, the average daily number of prisoners in jail was 90·6, including 4·67 females, or 1 prisoner to every 1981 of the population. The total cost of the jail was £1031, or £11, 11s. 9d. per prisoner. Jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £380.

Education has always been an object of solicitude to the Government since the British assumed the administration of the country. The Coorgs themselves are an intelligent race, and they have repeatedly displayed a strong desire to obtain the benefits of an English education for their children. In 1862, the Coorg head-men presented a remarkable petition to Government, desiring the establishment of a boarding-

school at Merkárá, towards the expense of which they contributed liberally by opening out a coffee estate, which is leased for a term of 16 years at £310 per annum. In this manner the school has been made self-supporting, and provides accommodation for 60 boys. In the year 1881, there were altogether 63 schools in the territory under Government inspection, attended by 3233 pupils. There were also 41 indigenous schools, attended by 470 pupils. These figures combined give 1 school to every 15 square miles of area, and 20 pupils to every thousand of the population. The total cost of education was £2029, or an average of 12s. 6¼d. per pupil; the amount of fees paid was £220, exclusive of £89 for school-books. Of the total number of pupils, 331 are girls, and as many as 2100 belonged to the Coorg race, showing that 81 out of every 1000 of the Coorg population are at school. The high school at Merkárá, under a principal and 11 masters, was attended by 313 boys in 1881. Including Government and indigenous teaching, the Census Report in 1881 returned 4268 boys and 431 girls as under instruction; besides 8839 adult males and 356 adult females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Coorg is temperate and humid. The mountains of the Western Gháts collect the moisture that rolls up in clouds from the sea. The wooded valleys are not free from fogs in the morning and evening. The rainy season proper, which is the result of the south-west monsoon, lasts from June to September. The downpour of rain is very heavy on the Merkárá plateau and on the Western Gháts, and blasts of wind blow at the same time with great vehemence. The sun is often not seen for weeks; and as much as 90 inches of rain have been registered at Merkárá in the single month of July, including 10 inches within twenty-four hours. The average annual rainfall for the 20 years ending 1882 amounts to 122·86 inches. By observations extending over the same period, the maximum of rainfall during the two heaviest monsoon months, June and July, occurred in the years 1864, 1865, 1869, 1872, 1874, 1880, and 1882. The total rainfall for the last-named year was 203·55 inches. The rainfall in the coffee district of South Coorg, known as the 'Bamboo,' is not nearly so great. The maximum rainfall at Amatti is 72·35, and the average is 65·64 inches. The mean annual temperature for the whole of Coorg during the last 20 years was 66·60° F. The hottest month is May, when the thermometer sometimes rises to 82°; but on the whole, the variations of heat and cold are very moderate.

The Coorg climate is considered salubrious by the natives, and also by European residents, but its cold and damp exercise injurious effects on natives who have arrived from the plains of India. The nights are cool throughout the year, and Europeans are able to take exercise in the open air at all hours of the day. European children especially

show by their rosy cheeks that they enjoy excellent health. The most prevalent disease is malarious fever, which renders the mountain valleys unhealthy during the hot months. Cholera is almost unknown, but small-pox has made terrible ravages among the natives, despite the introduction of vaccination. In 1881–82, a total of 3006 deaths were reported, of which 2358 were ascribed to fevers, 117 to bowel complaints, 215 to small-pox, 12 to suicide, 4 to snake-bite, 12 to cholera, and 193 to all other causes. The death-rate was 16·3 per thousand. There are 2 charitable dispensaries—at Merkárá and Vira-rájendra-pet—at which, in 1881, a total of 429 in-door and 8665 out-door patients were treated. The total expenditure was £744, towards which Government contributed £321. In the same year, 4887 vaccinations were performed. [For further information regarding Coorg, see the *Gazetteer of Mysore and Coorg*, by Lewis Rice, Esq. (Bangalore, 1878), vol. iii. Also the *Census Report* for 1881; and the *Administration Reports* from 1881 to 1883.]

Coorla.—Town, Thána District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* KURLA.

Cooum (*Kuvam*).—River in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency, rises in the Conjevaram *táluk*, and flows due east, entering the sea in lat. 13° 4′ N., long. 80° 20′ E. The city of Madras stands at the mouth of this river, which receives the drainage of a portion of the town. The volume of water being too small to carry off all the impurities with which it is thus charged, the Cooum here degenerates into little better than an open sewer.

Corembu Gáonden.—Range of hills in the District of South Arcot, Madras Presidency, lying between 11° 51′ and 12° 1′ N. lat., and between 78° 42′ and 78° 55′ E. long.—*See* KALRAYANMALAI.

Coringa (*Koringa ;* from *Kurangam*, 'a stag,' after the golden stag in the Rámáyána ; the *Kalingou* of Pliny).—Town and seaport in Godávarí District, Madras Presidency ; situated at the northern or principal mouth of the Godávarí river, 8 miles south of Cocanada, in lat. 16° 48′ 25″ N., and long. 82° 16′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 4397, namely, 4255 Hindus, 141 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian ; number of houses, 1084. An early Dutch settlement, and once the greatest seaport and shipbuilding centre on the coast ; but now, owing to the extension of the delta seaward, a place of little commercial importance. The silt carried down by the Godávarí has formed a bar outside the entrance. In 1802, there was a dock here in which ships of the Royal Navy were repaired ; and vessels drawing 12 and 13 feet could enter. The port is still frequented by native craft, and shipbuilding yards are at work in the hamlet of Tallarevu hard by. In 1880–81, the imports were valued at £1061, chiefly from Burma. The exports in the same year were valued at £30,913. The trade has been steadily declining for some years, but a considerable business with Rangoon and Maulmain

is still carried on by small vessels. In 1881–82, shipping of 6717 tons burthen entered the port; value of imports, £459; of exports, £20,219. The new lighthouse on the mainland, $4\frac{3}{4}$ miles from Cocanada, warns vessels off the Godávarí shoals, and serves as a guide to ships making for Coringa or Cocanada. Koringí is the name by which all Telugus are known in Burma and the Straits, and the name of the town itself is a relic of the ancient KALINGA. The town has twice (in 1787 and 1832) been overwhelmed by a tidal wave. It also suffered very severely in the hurricane of 1839.

Coromandel.—The popular name applied more or less indefinitely to portions of the eastern coast of the present Madras Presidency. By some writers, the name is derived from the same source as that of the village of COROMANDEL, but the weight of authority is with those who suppose it to be a corruption of Cholamandalam, 'the country of the Cholas.' By this name it is repeatedly referred to in ancient native writings; and as recently as 1799, the seaboard of Coromandel was spoken of as Cholamandalam and Choramandalam. San Bartolomeo, relating in 1796 his experiences during his residence in this district, speaks of 'the coast of Ciolamandala, which Europeans very improperly call Coromandel,' but derives the name from *cholam* (Holcus sorghum), the millet which forms a staple food of the people. The true spelling of *cholam* in the vernacular, however, scarcely supports this theory.—*See* CHOLA.

Coromandel (*Karimanal*, 'black sand').—Town in Ponneri *táluk*, Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 26′ 10″ N., long. 80° 20′ 36″ E. Houses, 815. Population (1881) 3807, chiefly fishermen. Mentioned as a native town as early as 1499 by Italian travellers. The *kariminal*, or sand used by the people instead of blotting-paper, is found here.

Cortelliar (*Kortalaiyáru*).—River of Madras Presidency; rises in the Káveripák tank in North Arcot District, and, after passing through the Trivellúr and Ponneri *táluks*, flows into the Ennúr backwater about 12 miles north of Madras. This river is the chief source of the Madras water-supply, being connected by means of an anicut with the Chodávaram and Red Hill tanks. An account of the waterworks will be found in the article on MADRAS CITY. It is said that at one time the bed of the present Cortelliar was occupied by the Palár. Tributaries—the Mahendranadí, Sappúr, Tritani, and Nagari. It was the delay caused by a sudden fresh in the Cortelliar river that led to the destruction of General Baillie's column by Haidar Alí in 1780.

Cossimbázár.—Decayed town in Murshidábád District, Bengal.—*See* KASIMBAZAR.

Cossipur (*Kásípur*).—Ancient village on the Húglí, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; now a northern suburb of

Calcutta; on the river bank a few miles above the custom-house. Lat. 22° 37′ 30″ N., long. 88° 24′ 30″ E. The site of an important Government gun foundry.

Cossye.—River of Bengal.—*See* KASAI.

Courtallum (*Kúttálam*). — Village in Tenkásí *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency, and the sanitarium of the District from June to October. Lat. 8° 56′ 20″ N., long. 77° 20′ E. Population (1881) 1216. Number of houses, 369. Although only 450 feet above sea-level, Courtallum receives the south-west monsoon through an opening in the Gháts, and possesses the climate and flora of a much higher elevation. The scenery is greatly admired, and the waterfalls are considered sacred by the natives. The smallest cascade is 100 feet high, and below it is a beautiful bathing-pool and a pagoda. There are several bungalows occupied for a few months every year by European officials and their families from Pálámkottá and Trevandrum. Distance from Pálámkottá, 35 miles.

Covelong (*Kovilam*).—Village in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency; 20 miles south of Madras. Lat. 12° 46′ N., long. 80° 17′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 1692, chiefly fishermen, occupying 393 houses. One of the earliest European settlements, and formerly a place of some strategical importance. The fort, built by the first Nawáb of Arcot in 1745, was by a stratagem occupied in 1750 by the French. A party of soldiers, with arms concealed under their clothes, and simulating extreme sickness, were admitted into the fort by the kindly natives, who believed their tale, that they were the scurvy-smitten crew of the ship which had just anchored off the coast, unable to proceed. During the night, they rose and overpowered the garrison. In 1752, Clive invested the place, and the French surrendered without firing a shot. The fortifications were then blown up. Covelong possesses a Roman Catholic church, almshouse, and orphanage. The salt-pans to the west of the village are large, and there is some export trade in salt. Excellent oysters are found here.

Cowcally.—Lighthouse in Midnapur District, Bengal.—*See* GEONKHALI.

Cox's Bázár.—Sub-division of Chittagong District, Bengal, lying between lat. 20° 43′ and 21° 54′ N., and between long. 91° 52′ and 92° 22′ E. Area, 937 square miles, with 275 villages and 29,972 occupied houses. Population (1881), Muhammadans, 128,037; Hindus, 13,667; Buddhists, 19,630; Christians, 14: total, 161,348, namely, males 77,248, and females 84,100. Average density of population, 172 persons per square mile; number of houses per square mile, 33; persons per village, 594; persons per house, 5·4. The Sub-division, which was constituted on the 15th May 1854, comprises the police circles (*thánás*) of Máheshkhál, Chakiriá, Cox's Bázár, and Teknaf. It contained in

1883, 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 102 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 236.

Cox's Bázár.—Head-quarters of Cox's Bázár Sub-division and police circle, Chittagong District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Bághkhálí *khál*. Lat. 21° 26′ 31″ N., and long. 92° 1′ 2″ E. Named after Captain Cox, who in 1799 was appointed to look after the many thousand Magh fugitives who sought shelter in British territory after the conquest of Arakan by the Burmese. The Maghs still form three-fourths of the inhabitants of the town, although they only number 12 per cent. of the population of the Sub-division. The Census of 1881 returned the population of Cox's Bázár at 4363, namely, males 1887, and females 2476. The little town is now a thriving and important place, differing altogether in appearance from a Bengal village. The places of worship and the rest-houses of the Maghs are well and solidly built; and some of the houses of the well-to-do residents are not only substantial, but picturesque and neatly ornamented. The houses are built entirely of timber raised on piles, after the Burmese fashion. Municipal income in 1881–82, £242.

Cranganore.—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* KRANGANUR.

Cuddalore (*Kúdalúr*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 459 square miles, of which all but 96 are cultivated or cultivable. Houses, 47,298. Population (1881) 298,523, distributed in 2 towns and 221 villages, and occupying 42,559 houses. Classified according to religion, there were—285,130 Hindus; 8026 Muhammadans (being 6869 Sunnís, 308 Shiás, 15 Wahábís, and 834 unspecified); Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics, 5226; Buddhists, Jains, and 'others,' 141. The land revenue for 1882–83 amounted to £39,279. Chief places, CUDDALORE and PANRUTI. In 1882–83, the *táluk* contained 3 civil and 4 criminal courts, with 11 police stations (*thánás*); strength of police force, 165 men.

Cuddalore (*Kúdalúr*, *Gudulúr*, *Kudla-úr*, 'The town at the junction of the rivers').—Town in Cuddalore *táluk*, and administrative head-quarters of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Situated on the backwater formed by the confluent estuaries of the Gaddilam and Parávanár; 116 miles by sea and 127 by rail south of Madras, and 16 miles south of Pondicherri. Lat. 11° 42′ 45″ N., long. 79° 48′ 45″ E. Number of houses, 8055. Population (1881) 43,545, namely, 39,997 Hindus, 1983 Muhammadans, 1510 Christians, and 55 'others.' Of the adult males, 22 per cent. are weavers or small traders. The municipal area extends over 13 square miles, including 18 hamlets which form the suburbs of the town; municipal income in 1881–82, £2816; incidence of taxation, about 1s. 3d. per head of the rateable population. As regards popula-

tion, Cuddalore ranks tenth among the towns of the Madras Presidency. As the head-quarters of the District administration, it contains all the chief public offices, courts, jail, etc., besides a railway station and sea-customs and marine establishments. It carries on a large land trade with Madras in indigo, oils, and sugar, which are manufactured here; and it exports by sea great quantities of grain. For the year 1881-82, the imports, chiefly coal and jaggery, were valued at £63,800; and the exports, principally rice and refined sugar, at £55,400. The vessels which entered the harbour in the same year aggregated 31,914 tons burthen. The river mouths having silted up, only native craft can come up to the town, but good anchorage in 6 to 8 fathoms can be obtained in the roads 1½ miles from the shore. The native town, Cuddalore proper, lies in a low, damp site about 2 miles south of Munjakupam, where the Europeans reside. It is well laid out, and the houses are exceptionally substantial. It contains the jail (formerly the Company's factory), the barracks, now unoccupied, and the marine and mercantile offices. The European quarter, which stands on slightly higher ground, contains all the public offices, scattered on a large plain, intersected by good roads with avenues of trees. The station has a reputation for being healthy. About 1¼ mile north-east are situated the ruins of Fort St. David, on the left bank of the Gaddilam river.

The history of Cuddalore dates from 1682, when the Company opened negotiations with the 'Khán of Gingee' for permission to settle here. The first building was erected in 1683, and in the following year a formal lease was obtained for the site of the present port and the former fortress. During the next ten years, trade increased so rapidly that the Company erected Fort St. David for the protection of the place, and rebuilt their warehouses. On the fall of Madras in 1746, the British administration withdrew to Cuddalore, which was soon afterwards twice unsuccessfully besieged by the French under Dupleix. The head-quarters of the Presidency remained here till 1752, when the Government returned to Madras. During this interval, the Jesuits were expelled from the settlement as spies in the French service. In 1755, Clive was in command at Cuddalore. In 1758, the French occupied the town, and stormed and destroyed the fort; but in 1760, after the battle of Wandiwash, the British regained possession. In 1782, it again fell into the hands of the French and their ally Tipú Sultán, by whom the fortifications were sufficiently renewed to enable it to withstand in the following year a siege and several assaults. During the siege, a drawn battle was fought in the roadstead between the French and English fleets. In 1785, Cuddalore was formally restored to the British, and in 1801 it was included in the cession of the Karnatic. Of the fort, only a few ruins now remain, but it must once have been a place of considerable strength.

Cuddapah (*Kadapá*).—A District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 13° 25′ and 16° 20′ N. lat., and 77° 55′ and 79° 40′ E. long. Area, 8745 square miles. Population (1881) 1,121,038. In point of size, this District ranks second, and in population fifteenth, among the Districts of the Madras Presidency. It contains 1231 villages and 10 towns. Land revenue (1881), £161,743; total revenue (gross), £201,321. Bounded on the north by the District of Karnúl (Kurnool), on the east by the District of Nellore, on the south by North Arcot District and Kolár District in the State of Mysore, and on the west by the District of Bellary. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at CUDDAPAH town.

Physical Aspects.—Cuddapah (Kadapá) District lies beneath the western slopes of the Eastern Gháts and the opposing face of the Mysore plateau, forming an irregular parallelogram, shut in on the east and south by high mountain ranges, and on the west and south-west stretching away into broad plains. The system of hill chains that shapes this country radiates from two centres. That in the south-east corner of the District lies near the holy hill of Tripatti (Tirupati), a point from which two main ranges strike northwards. The first range is that of the Eastern Gháts, which here reach, and in some parts exceed, an elevation of 3000 feet, their average height being about 2000 feet above sea-level. The other is the Pálkonda and Sesháchalam range, extending as far as the river Pennár (Ponnaiyár), and to within a few miles of Cuddapah town. Pálkonda is the common name of the range, meaning the 'milk hill,' so called on account of its fine pasturage. This Pálkonda and Sesháchalam range, reaching an average elevation of about 1500 feet, bisects the District into two divisions, the one of a lowland, the other of a highland character, which differ materially in general aspect and character—so much so, that for climate and soil, cultivation and condition, they might be in different degrees of latitude. Each division, also, has a separate history of its own. The upper division consists in part of a bare expanse of black cotton-soil, and elsewhere of thickly-wooded hills, from which impetuous torrents descend in the rainy season to the Pennár, the only stream in Cuddapah which deserves the name of river. The lower half of the District, skirted on the east and north-east by the same Sesháchalam range, slopes up gently from the foot of the hills till it merges in the Mysore plateau, undulating so continuously throughout its extent that it would be difficult to find in the whole a perfectly level mile of ground. Isolated hills and masses of rock stud the country, in some instances, as at Gurramkonda, forming objects of peculiar picturesqueness and grandeur. The main watershed of the country runs north-west and south-west, discharging its drainage into the central valley of the Pennár, the chief tributaries being the Kundair and Sagalair. The

other larger streams are the Pápaghni, the Cheyair, and the Chitravatí. This last enters the District in the extreme north-west, and after a course of only 8 miles within it, falls into the Pennár. The Cheyair exhibits scenery of remarkable grandeur along its course; and all the rivers have hills of alluvial soil, varying in breadth, sloping up from either bank. Excepting the Pennár, which flows from west to east through the upper half of the District, and north of the line of railway, the streams of Cuddapah are small, but they are all of value to the country, as on their banks are the busiest centres of population. The forest area is large, and the timber—blackwood, *yellama*, *yept*, *shandamon*, etc.—valuable; but only 10,000 acres are at present conserved, and these chiefly for railway requirements. The chief mineral products of the District are iron-ore, lead, copper, limestone, slate, and sandstone for building purposes. Diamonds have been worked for and found on the right bank of the Pennár about 7 or 8 miles north of Cuddapah town, in the neighbourhood of Chenúr. Among the wild beasts, leopards, *sámbhar* deer, bear, wild boar, and porcupine may be considered characteristic of the jungle-clad hill tracts, while elsewhere antelope, wolf, hyæna, and fox are common.

History.—Passing over the tradition which assigns to Cuddapah a conspicuous place in the story of Ráma, and that debateable era when three Hindu kingdoms are said to have divided Southern India, the history of the District begins with the Muhammadan period. The Hindu kings of Vijayanagar then exercised feudal authority over this tract, which was long saved by its numerous hill forts from falling under permanent subjugation at the hands of the Musalmáns. But after the disaster of Tálikot in 1565, Cuddapah became the high road for the armies invading the Karnatic, and was distributed piecemeal among various Muhammadan chiefs subordinate to the Golconda kingdom. One of these, the Gurramkonda Nawáb, exercised more than local powers; he enjoyed the privilege of coining money, and, except for the feudal obligation of military aid, was subject to none of the usual conditions of a tributary. But about 1642, the estate fell into the possession of the Maráthás, and the chief had to fly to the Nizám, by whom he was subsequently assigned another *jágír*. Meanwhile, Cuddapah was given up to plunder by Sivají, the Maráthá, who placed Bráhmans in charge of each of the conquered strongholds, and, to use a phrase of contemporary history, 'scraped the country to the bones.' A gap now occurs in local history. But early in the following century, we find Abdul Nabí Khán, the Pathán 'Cuddapah Nawáb,' acting independently of the Nizám, and laying under tribute the *pálegárs* of the tract known as the Báramahál, notably the Chief of Punganúr, who, besides an annual payment of 32,000 pagodas, was required to maintain a force of 2000 armed men. Three Nawábs of Cuddapah ruled in succession, each

increasing the power bequeathed to him; but the third came into collision with the rising power of the Maráthás about the year 1732, and from this event dates the decline of the house. In 1750, however, the Cuddapah Nawáb was still playing an important part in the affairs of the Karnatic. In the following year he headed the conspiracy in which Muzaffar Jang, the Nizám, lost his life in the Luckereddipalli Pass. In 1757, the Maráthás gained a decisive victory over the Nawáb at the town of Cuddapah, but lost all advantage from the victory by the advance of the army of the Nizám, with a French contingent under M. Bussy. Meanwhile, Haidar Alí had risen to supreme power in Mysore. Jealous of the Maráthá successes, he intrigued successfully for the surrender of Gurramkonda fort; and in 1769, having signed a truce with the British, turned all his attention to Cuddapah. In a secret treaty with the Nizám he stipulated for a joint invasion of the Coromandel coast and, in the distribution of conquered lands, for the possession of Cuddapah by Mysore. A series of invasions and counter-invasions followed. In 1782, on the death of Haidar Alí, a descendant of the last Cuddapah Nawáb claimed the title, and was supported by a small British detachment, which, however, was treacherously massacred during a parley. For the next few years, Cuddapah enjoyed comparative rest; but in 1790, when the Maráthás, the Nizám, and the British combined to overthrow Tipú Sultán, the Nizám's first step was to recover Cuddapah. In 1792, Tipú signed a treaty ceding the whole of Cuddapah District, with the fort of Gurramkonda, to the Nizám, who granted it in *jágír* three years later to M. Raymond, to defray the expenses of the contingent under his command. But the Madras Government, disquieted by this occupation of so important a frontier post, compelled M. Raymond's withdrawal by threatening to attack Cuddapah. For the next few years, a general scramble for the forts of the District took place among the *pálegárs*. In 1799, after the fall of Seringapatam, Cuddapah was transferred by the Nizám to the British, in satisfaction of arrears of pay due by him to his British contingent. In 1800, this cession was formally ratified, and since that date the District has had but little history. Sir Thomas Munro, the first Collector of 'the Ceded Districts' (Cuddapah, Kurnool, and Bellary), found Cuddapah held by some 80 *pálegárs* or feudal chiefs, all maintaining bodies of retainers who subsisted entirely by plundering the open villages. These feudal chiefs asserted their independence, which they maintained with less difficulty because of the isolated tracts into which the hill-bounded river basins split up the country. They were, however, one after the other, reduced to submission; and the District was surveyed, assessed, and brought into order by the establishment of a police and a settled administration of justice. In 1807, when Sir Thomas Munro retired from his post, the Madras Government recorded

their appreciation of his services in the following order:—'From disunited hordes of lawless plunderers and freebooters, the people are now as far advanced in civilisation, submission to the laws, and obedience to the magistrates as any of the subjects under this Government. The revenues are collected with facility; every one seems satisfied with his position, and the regret of the people is universal on the departure of the Principal Collector.' In 1832, the Patháns of Cuddapah, affecting to see in an act committed by one of their own faith an attempt to outrage a place of worship, raised a riot, in which the Sub-Collector (Mr. Macdonald) was murdered. In 1846, a descendant of the dispossessed *pálegár* of Nossum, dissatisfied with the pension he received, attempted to excite a general rebellion, and collected on the frontiers two forces of several thousand men. Each was promptly defeated by British detachments, and before the end of the year quiet was completely restored. Since that date, no event of historical importance has occurred. Of all the turbulent *pálegárs*, not one now remains in occupation of his ancestral property, but their descendants receive allowances from the Government. Their estates are now held on direct tenure by the cultivators, to whom they have been leased in small lots.

Population.—The Census of 1871 disclosed a total population of 1,351,194 persons, living in 339,603 houses, on an area of 8367 square miles, giving an average of 4 persons per house, and 161 per square mile. The Census of 1881 returned the area at 8745 square miles, and the total population at 1,121,038, showing a decrease of 230,156 persons in the decade, or 17·03 per cent., due to the famine of 1876–78, which was most severe in this District. The male population was returned at 569,970; the female at 551,068; proportion of males in total population, 50·9 per cent. Number of houses, 247,186. Number of persons per square mile, 128, varying from 194 in the Cuddapah *táluk* to 93 in Ráyachoti—in point of density the District stands lowest but four among the Districts of the Presidency; number of persons per house, 4·5. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, 1,017,211, or 90·74 per cent., were returned as Hindus; 97,749, or 8·72 per cent., as Muhammadans; 6067, or 0·54 per cent., as Christians, and 11 'others.' Children under the age of 10 years numbered 116,045 males and 119,408 females. Between 10 and 20 years the males were 129,350, the females 112,187. The Hindu population was distributed as follows:—Bráhmans, 24,226; Kshattriyas, 16,650; Chetties (traders), 34,261; Vallálars (agriculturists), 442,520, or 43·5 per cent. of the total population; Idáiyars (shepherds), 86,093, or 8·4 per cent.; Kammálars (artisans), 13,638; Kaikalar (weavers), 52,168, or 5·12 per cent.; Vanniyan (labourers), 771; Kushavan (potters), 10,139; Satáni (mixed castes), 13,517; Shembádavan (fisher-

men), 35,256; Shánán (toddy-drawers), 7435; Ambattan (barbers), 14,705; Vannán (washermen), 28,047; Pariahs, 147,733, or 14·5 per cent.; and 'others,' 89,854. According to occupation, 15,657, or 1·40 per cent. of the total population, are 'professional;' 4078, or 0·36 per cent., are 'domestic;' 19,410, or 1·73 per cent., are 'commercial;' 478,467, or 42·68 per cent., are 'agricultural;' 134,332, or 11·98 per cent., are 'industrial;' and 469,094, or 41·85 per cent., belong to the 'indefinite and non-productive' class,—2·39 per cent. among the last being returned as 'occupied.' About 60·54 per cent. are returned as workers, on whom the remaining 39·46 per cent. of the population depend; 71·51 per cent. of males, and 49·21 per cent. of females, were workers. There were 51,693 persons who were either educated or under instruction, of whom only 1882 were females. The Christians of this District are better taught than any other class of natives.

It is noteworthy that, while the Bráhmans are by a vast majority returned as Siva-worshippers, the Kshattriyas are generally Vaishnavs. The Muhammadans are arranged as follows:—Shaikhs, 6579; Sayyids, 998; Patháns, 1228; Mughals, 111; Lubbays, 60; and 'others,' 9421, excluding 79,352 Muhammadans returned under the heading 'not stated.' Of the native Christians, nearly all are Pariahs, and of the Protestant faith; of Europeans there were only 42; and of Eurasians, 282. The wandering tribes—known to the police as 'the criminal classes'—comprise the Yanadis, Yerukalas, Chenchuwars, and Sugalis. The first of these, a low-statured race, live among the hills on the frontier of the District, descending at times to take employment in the plains. In their unreclaimed state they are the determined plunderers of the shepherds' flocks. In the Forest Department their woodcraft is turned to good account. The Yerukalas will seldom settle, preferring to wander about, under pretence of collecting jungle produce. A favourite form of crime with them is to enter an unguarded house at night and wrench the jewels from the ears of sleeping women and children. The Sugalis, who are comparatively harmless, resemble European gipsies in their wandering life, picturesque costume, and pilfering tendencies. The Chenchuwars, physically a fine race of men, are most incorrigible criminals, showing little regard for human life; in habits they are not unlike the Yanadis.

The chief towns are—CUDDAPAH, which is the only municipal town in the District, with 18,982 inhabitants; BADVEL, 8638; PRODDATUR, 6510; JAMMULAMADUGU, 4846; KADIRI, 5004; MADANAPALLI, 5700; PULIVENDALA, 1885; RAYACHOTI, 4367; VEMPALLE, 5811; and VAYALPAD, 3695.

Agriculture.—The Cuddapah agriculturists are good farmers, and the alluvial soil of the valleys produces rich crops. They manure very highly, using for that purpose animal, vegetable and mineral manures.

In the Cuddapah valley especially the soil is very rich, and grain of all kinds is grown, as well as cotton and indigo. Tamarind trees are largely planted, 800 lbs. weight of the cleaned fruit selling for 10s. The trees, however, only bear every second year. The cultivator now holds his lands under the *ráyatwári* system of tenure. Formerly (in 1808), land was held under a three years' lease, on the 'village rent system,' each village being farmed out to a separate and solely responsible renter. This did not succeed, and in 1811 a lease for ten years was substituted, which continued up to 1821. The inhabitants of the District still speak of those days as one incessant period of extortion from the under-tenants, and of absconding and punishment of the renters. The ten years' lease system, proving unsatisfactory, was abolished; and the *ráyatwári* system was introduced, which caused the revenue to fall to about £150,000 in the first year of its introduction (1822). From this time, however, it began steadily to rise, until in 1830 it reached £200,000, at which average it has stood since. As regards ordinary 'wet' crops, such as rice, *rági*, etc., the out-turn per acre may be valued at about £5 per annum, and the net profit to the *ráyat* at £2. The average size of an ordinary cultivator's holding is 6¼ acres. Cotton has always been largely cultivated in the northern *táluks*, and indigo is grown very generally over the District. The cotton soil demands continual care, since, if neglected for a short time, it is liable to be overgrown by a weed known as 'nut grass,' which spreads very rapidly and can only be ploughed up with great labour. Sugar-cane cultivation requires very deep ploughing and a constant supply of water. An acre of cane ought to produce about 12,000 lbs. of jaggery (crude sugar), worth in the market about £22. Of the total area of the District, 8745 square miles (5,596,800 acres), 2,889,007 acres were returned in 1881–82 as assessed to Government revenue. The area actually under cultivation was 1,495,514 acres, of which 178,534 acres were irrigated. The cultivable area not under the plough was 1,143,287 acres; pasture and forest lands, 184,080 acres; uncultivable waste, 2,776,039 acres; total uncultivated, 4,103,406 acres. Of the total area, 775,438 acres are held in *inám*, or under a free grant. The staple cereals of the District are the millets, *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), *kambu* (Panicum spicatum), and *korra* (Panicum italicum), which occupied between them 769,243 acres of the cultivated area; 283,282 acres being taken up by other cereals, as *rági* (Eleusine coracana), wheat, rice, etc. Of the remaining cultivated area, peas, lentils, and other pulses occupied 149,243 acres; orchard and garden produce, 25,635 acres; tobacco, 5084 acres; chillies and cummin, 13,508 acres; sugar-cane, 3034 acres; oil-seeds, 40,210 acres; indigo, 100,772 acres; saffron, 1449 acres; cotton, 96,743 acres; jute

and other fibres, 355 acres. The agricultural stock of the District comprised in 1881-82, 212,924 horned cattle, 10,630 donkeys, 385 horses, 1474 ponies, 220,273 sheep, 235,038 goats, 8462 pigs, 41,152 carts, and 108,929 ploughs. The prices of produce ruling at the end of the same year, per *maund* of 80 lbs., were—for rice, 6s.; wheat, 6s.; other grains, 2s.; sugar, 32s.; linseed, 16s.; salt, 8s.; jute, 12s.; cotton, 32s.; and sheep, 5s. to 6s. each. The wages for skilled labour were from 1s. to 1s. 3d. per day, and of unskilled, from 3d. to 5d.

Natural Calamities.—Between 1800 and 1802 there was considerable distress in Cuddapah, and relief works were opened. Again in 1866 very high prices obtained; and the great drought of 1876-77 caused severe suffering throughout the District. In 1865, part of the District suffered from a visitation of grasshoppers. From the commencement of the District history, alternate droughts and floods appear to have prevailed. Three years of drought preceded a great bursting of the tanks in 1803; and in 1818, after a dry year, 180 tanks in one *táluk* alone were breached by the sudden and excessive rainfall. In 1820, a violent storm burst 770 tanks, causing the destruction of a few human lives and many cattle. In 1851, there was a greater mortality from the same cause; in one of the villages swept away, 500 people were drowned. Cuddapah suffered severely in the great Madras famine of 1877, for an account of which see the article on MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

Commerce and Trade.—The manufacture of cloth from the cotton produced in the District ranks first among the local industries. In 1804, the number of looms was estimated, under the East India Company's system of 'Investments,' at 19,626, turning out annually goods to the value of £230,000; and in 1875, the out-turn of cotton having more than doubled since 1804, the value of the manufactured produce was estimated at £400,000. The manufacture of indigo has of late years decreased, the European firms having closed their factories, and the business falling entirely into the hands of native producers. The sugar made in Cuddapah commands a market throughout Southern India, the cane being of superior quality. The 'Imperial' and 'Minor' irrigation works of the District comprise 434 channels and 995 tanks, irrigating an area of 235,612 acres, and yielding a revenue of £85,379. The roads of the District aggregate a length of 1123 miles (a great portion being over cotton soil, and passable only in dry weather), and are spread equally over the District. They branch off from the three main lines from Madras to Bellary, Karnúl (Kurnool), and Kadiri. The Kurnool-Cuddapah canal enters the District in the Proddatúr *táluk*. It is taken across the Pennár at Adniamáyapalli by means of an anicut which holds up the water at the required level, and terminates,

after a course of 191 miles, at the Krishnapuram station of the Madras Railway, 4 miles from Cuddapah. The total length of canals in the District is 75 miles. The Madras Railway (North-West Line) traverses the District for 102 miles, with 14 stations.

The religious institutions of the District are important in the aggregate, Government continuing an ancient allowance of £2700, and local piety contributing extensive endowments. The Car Festival in the Proddatúr and other *táluks*, the Bathing Festival of Pushpagiri, and the Gangá *jatrá* Festivals, all attract large assemblages, and facilitate the interchange of local products.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 11 *táluks*, namely, BADVEL, CUDDAPAH, JAMMULAMADUGU, KADIRI, MADHANAPALLE, PRODDATUR, PULLIVENDALA, PULLAMPET, RAYACHOTI, SIDHOUT, and VAYALPAD. The land revenue amounted in 1881 to £161,743, while excise yielded £20,370; stamps, £15,354; and assessed taxes, £3854. Total revenue, £201,321. The estimated money value of the lands alienated in payment of service amounts to about £77,000. This does not, however, include the alienations in personal and religious *ináms*, amounting to an additional £60,000. In fact, such an excessive quantity of *inám* land has been granted in this District, that the cultivating class is to a considerable degree independent of Government land. The administration of justice is conducted by 7 civil and 5 revenue judges; the number of magistrates of all grades is 30. The police force comprises 1058 officers and men of all ranks, giving a proportion of 1 to every 8 square miles and every 1060 of the inhabitants, and is maintained at a cost of £16,688. The District possesses one jail in the town of Cuddapah, with a daily average population of 145, costing £9, 15s. per prisoner.

Education is provided by grants from the Local Funds, and by Government. In 1881–82 there were 495 schools, including 3 girls' schools, distributed over the District, with a total attendance of 8425 pupils, besides 158 indigenous schools with an average roll of 2814 pupils. The one municipality is that of Cuddapah, with an income, in 1881–82, of £2958, from which are supported an elementary school, civil dispensary, vaccinating staff, conservancy establishments, and municipal police.

Medical Aspects.—The climate, though trying, does not appear to be unhealthy. In January and February, north-east winds, cool and dry, keep the temperature at about 75° F., but in March the heat begins to increase, and till the end of June the mean varies from 95° to 100° in the shade. From July to September inclusive, cooler breezes, with occasional showers, prevail from the south-west; and from September to December, during the north-east monsoon, the temperature averages

70°. Cholera occasionally visits the District in an epidemic form, but causes no serious mortality. Small-pox shows a lower death-rate than in any other District of the Presidency, except Ganjám and South Kánara. Fever carries off great numbers annually; and to this cause is probably due the reputation for unhealthiness unfairly bestowed on the District. The disease called 'Madura-foot' is endemic in the black cotton-soil *táluks*. There are three dispensaries in the District—at Cuddapah, Proddatúr, and Madanapallí. The number of births registered in the District in 1881 was 32,867, or a ratio of 29·3 per 1000 of population. The number of registered deaths in the same year was 20,343, or 18·1 per 1000, the mean for the previous five years being 27·4. Vaccination still meets with opposition, and makes but little progress. The annual rainfall for 30 years ending 1881 averaged 27·26 inches. [For further information regarding Cuddapah, see the *Manual of Cuddapah District*, by J. D. B. Gribble, Esq., C.S. (Madras, 1875). Also the *Census Report of Madras* (1881); and the *Annual Administration Reports of the Madras Presidency* from 1880 to 1883.]

Cuddapah (*Kadapá*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency. Area, 760 square miles, containing 31,104 houses, grouped into 1 town and 146 villages; population (1881) 147,453, namely, 74,421 males and 73,032 females. The *táluk* forms a basin completely shut in on three sides by the Lankamalái and SeshＡchalam Hills, and watered by the Pennár (Ponnaiyár), which within its limits receives three tributary streams, the Kundair, Pápaghni, and Bugair. Diamond-yielding quartzite is found at the foot of the hills above Chennúr and Kanuparti. The farming carried on in this *táluk* is decidedly superior to that of the rest of the District. The use of both irrigation and manure is more resorted to than elsewhere, and the rotation of crops is better understood. Cuddapah indigo, which differs in being extracted from the plants when green, commands a higher price than indigo from other parts of the Madras Presidency. Of the total area, only about one-third pays land revenue. The chief places are Cuddapah, Kamalápuram, Akkayapali, and Komadi. The Madras Railway (North-West Line) has 3 stations within the *táluk*, and good roads run alongside the canal which traverses the river valley. Education is very backward, even the ordinary *payal* schools being remarkably few in number, and exclusive. Land revenue demand (1882–83), £26,349. In the same year, the *táluk* contained 2 civil and 5 criminal courts, with 11 police stations (*thánás*), and a police force numbering 255 officers and men. Historically, the interest of the *táluk* centres in its chief town, CUDDAPAH.

Cuddapah (*Kadapá*).—Town and administrative head-quarters of Cuddapah District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 14° 28′ 49″ N.,

and long. 78° 51′ 47″ E., in the Pennár (Ponnaiyár) valley, 6 miles south of that river and 161 miles by rail from Madras; population (1881) 18,982, namely, 11,216 Hindus, 7273 Muhammadans, and 493 Christians, occupying 4015 houses. Municipal income in 1881–82, £2958; incidence of taxation, about 3s. 1d. per head. As the head-quarters of the District, Cuddapah contains all the chief offices of local administration, the Judge's and Collector's courts, jail, telegraph and post offices. The trade consists chiefly in the export of indigo and cotton, and the principal industry is the weaving of coarse cloth. The town, being enclosed on three sides by bare sandstone hills, is one of the hottest in the District, the mean temperature in the shade from March to July being 97° F.; annual rainfall, 27 inches. The native town is unhealthily situated and squalidly built, the proportion of substantial buildings being much lower than in many large villages. Cuddapah is sometimes said to have been a place of importance under the Vijayanagar dynasty. But the existence of a hamlet in the neighbourhood called Old Cuddapah (Pata-Cuddapah), and the total absence of ancient Hindu buildings, prove the modern origin of the present town. Muhammadan local tradition names Abdúl Nabi Miá as the founder; but it seems more probable that one of the Pathán lieutenants of the Golcondah army erected the fort about 1570. It is not till the beginning of the 18th century, when the so-called Nawáb of Kurpa (Cuddapah) had absorbed the whole of the tract known as the Bálághát, except Gúti (Gooty), and had extended his conquests to the Báramahál, that Cuddapah appears as the capital of a separate kingdom (*see* CUDDAPAH DISTRICT). In 1748, the Nawáb followed the standard of the Nizám Muzaffar Jang to the Southern States, and two years afterwards murdered his lord paramount with his own hand. Eight years later, retribution overtook him; his country was invaded by the Maráthás, to whom he was compelled to cede half his estates, including Gurramkonda fort; and at the same time Haidar Alí of Mysore wrested the Báramahál from him. In 1769, the Nawáb of Cuddapah paid tribute to Mysore; but having in the following year joined the Nizám, he was attacked by Haidar Alí, and, in spite of a gallant defence, his fort was captured. Soon after the Nawáb surrendered at Sidhaut. In 1792, Cuddapah was restored by treaty to the Nizám, who made it over for a time in *jágír* to M. Raymond, for the expenses of the French contingent. In 1800 it was ceded to the East India Company, and in 1817 constituted the head-quarters of the District. Since 1868 it has ceased to be a military cantonment.

The name has been derived from *Kripa*, 'mercy' (Sansk.); but others connect it with *Gadapa*, 'a gate' (Telugu)—*i.e.*, 'the gate to Tripati.' During the Muhammadan occupation, the town was called Nekuámábád.

Culna.—Sub-division and town in Bardwán District, Bengal.—*See* KALNA.

Cumbum (*Kambam*).—Town in Madúra District, Madras Presidency; situated in the valley of the same name, in the south-west of the District. Lat. 9° 44′ 50″ N., long. 77° 20′ 35″ E.; population (1881) 5361, almost all Hindus; number of houses, 768. The valley is a fertile tract sheltered by the Travancore Hills, and watered by a feeder of the Vygai (Vaigái). The fort of Cumbum was stormed by Vishwanáth Náyak in the 16th century.

Cumbum (*Kambam*).—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Lat. 15° 34′ 15″ N., long. 79° 9′ 1″ E.; population (1881) 7170, namely, Hindus, 4691; Muhammadans, 2471; and Christians, 8: number of houses, 2238. The Local Fund grant (about £150) is inadequate to meet the sanitary wants of the place; and no town in the Presidency has a worse reputation for fever. A tank or lake has been formed here by damming the Gundlakamma river by a *bandh* 57 feet high, thrown between two hills. This lake has an area of about 15 square miles, and is largely used for irrigation. The only building of interest is a dismantled fort.

Cutch (*Kachchh*, or *the sea-coast land*).—Native State in Gujarát under the political superintendence of the Government of Bombay; bounded on the north and north-west by the Province of Sind, on the east by Native States under the Pálanpur Agency, on the south by the peninsula of Káthiáwár and the Gulf of Cutch, and on the south-west by the Indian Ocean. Its limits, inclusive of the great salt marsh termed the Rann (Runn), extend from lat. 20° 47′ to 24° N., and from long. 68° 26′ to 71° 10′ E. The territory comprises a belt of land, 160 miles from east to west and about 35 to 70 from north to south. The area of the State, exclusive of the Rann, is about 6500 square miles, containing 8 towns and 889 villages; population in 1881, 512,084. The capital is BHUJ, where the Chief or Ráo resides.

From its isolated position, the special character of its people, their peculiar dialect, and their strong feeling of personal loyalty to their ruler, the peninsula of Cutch has more of the elements of a distinct nationality than any other of the dependencies of the Bombay Presidency.

Physical Aspects.—The whole territory of Cutch is almost entirely cut off from the continent of India—north by the Great Rann, east by the Little Rann, south by the Gulf of Cutch, and west by the eastern or Kori mouth of the Indus. Though on the whole treeless, barren, and rocky, the aspect of the country is varied by ranges of hills and isolated peaks, by rugged and deeply-cut river beds, and by well-tilled valleys and tracts of rich pasture land. On the south, behind

a high bank of sand that lines the sea-coast, lies a low, fertile, and well-cultivated plain from 20 to 30 miles broad. Beyond this plain, the Dora, a broad belt of hilly ground, stretches east and west from 500 to 1000 feet above the level of the plain. Behind the Dora range lies a rich valley, bounded to the north by the Chárwár, a second line of hills parallel to the first, but higher, narrower, and, especially along the northern side, more precipitous. Again, beyond the Chárwár Hills, a low-lying belt of rich pasturage, about 7 miles broad, stretches northwards to the Great Rann or salt desert; and, close to its southern shore, four hilly islands (from one of which rises Patcham Pír, the highest point in Cutch, 1450 feet above the level of the sea) stand out from the bed of the Rann. Each of the two chief ranges that, stretching east and west, form as it were a double backbone to the peninsula of Cutch, is marked by one peak of special height and of peculiar shape. Of these, Nánu, the centre point of the southern hills, is nearly 800, and Indria, the most prominent peak of the northern hills, nearly 900 feet above the sea-level. Besides these two main ranges, in the southwest a broken line of hills, and from the central plains isolated peaks rising to a commanding height, give the greater part of the State a rugged and rocky appearance. Except some brightly-coloured cliffs and boulders, the hills are dusty brown and white, their sides bare or covered with a stunted brushwood. From the sea on the south and west, and from the Rann on the north and east, the coast is in some places very slightly raised and fringed with mangrove swamps.

There are no permanent rivers in Cutch, but during the rainy season (July to October) many streams of considerable size flow from the central ranges of hills northwards to the Rann and southwards to the Gulf of Cutch. For the rest of the year, the courses of these streams are marked by a succession of detached pools. Owing to the porous nature of the upper soil, storage of water in ponds and reservoirs is difficult. But in rocks, at no great depth from the surface, water is readily found, and wells yielding excellent supplies are numerous.

The Rann.—The most striking physical feature of Cutch is the Rann or salt desert, stretching along the north and east of the State, which is estimated to cover an area of nearly 9000 square miles. It is believed to be the bed of an arm of the sea, raised by some natural convulsion above its original level, and cut off from the ocean. It almost completely surrounds the State with a belt, varying in width from 25 to 35 miles on the north to 2 miles on the east. The northern or larger Rann —measuring from east to west about 160 miles, and from north to south about 80—has an estimated area of not less than 7000 square miles. The eastern or smaller Rann (about 70 miles from east to west) covers an area estimated at nearly 2000 square miles. In appearance and general character, the greater and lesser Ranns differ but little.

The soil is dark, and is generally caked or blistered by the action of the sun on the saline particles with which the surface is impregnated. At times, the whole surface, particularly of the eastern part of the Rann, is covered with salt. With the exception of some of the smaller islands, on which grow a few stunted bushes and grass, there is no sign of vegetable life. The wild ass roams over the Rann, finding subsistence on the grasses in the islands and at the borders. During the rains, when the whole tract is frequently inundated, a passage across is a work of great labour, and often of considerable danger. Some of this inundation is salt water, either driven by strong south winds up the Lakhpat river from the sea, or brought down by brackish streams; the rest is fresh, the drainage of the local rainfall. In spite of this yearly flooding, the bed of the Rann does not, except in a few isolated spots, become soft or slimy. The flood-waters, as they dry, leave a hard, flat surface, covered with stone, shingle, and salt. As the summer wears on, and the heat increases, the ground, baked and blistered by the sun, shines over large tracts of salt with dazzling whiteness, the distance dimmed and distorted by an increasing mirage. On some raised plots of rocky land, water is found, and only near water is there any vegetation. Except a stray bird, a herd of wild asses, or an occasional caravan, no sign of life breaks the desolate loneliness. The Eastern Rann commences to fill in March, with the south-west winds; and during the time it contains water, it is affected by the tides, and is consequently very difficult to pass, as the water is constantly in motion. It attains its usual height before a drop of rain falls, by the influx of water from the Gulf of Cutch. Unseasonable rain, or a violent south-west wind at any period, renders the greater part of the Rann impassable. It generally becomes passable by the end of October; but even then for passage by troops it is recommended that the Rann be crossed by night to avoid the glare, and working parties should be detached in advance to clear wells. The Rann is considerably higher in the centre than along the edges; while the centre, therefore, is dry, there is frequently water and mud at its sides. The little Rann is at present undergoing a marked change. Year by year the sea is spreading farther eastward; and, along the coast, places which a few years ago were inaccessible to boats are now open to water traffic. Whether this change is due to a general fall in the level of the land, has not been satisfactorily ascertained.

Earthquakes.—The peculiar character of these great salt wastes, and the eruptions of basalt and fire-rent cliffs along the base of the hills, mark the early force of volcanic action in Cutch. Volcanoes are no longer at work; but frequent shocks of earthquake show that this tract is still the centre of strong subterranean energy. On four occasions during the present century—viz. 1819, 1844, 1845, and 1864—earth-

quake waves have crossed Cutch. The most severe were the shocks of 1819, when 7000 houses at Bhúj, including the Ráo's palace, were destroyed, and 1150 people buried in the ruins. Every fortified town in the State was injured, and, in the west, the fort of Terá, considered the strongest in Cutch, was levelled with the ground. One effect of this convulsion was the fall, at several parts of its surface, of the bed of the Rann. Sinking is reported to have taken place in the east, in the north, and in the west. In the west, the change of level was most marked; for about 16 miles on either side of Sindri, a fortified custom-house on the left bank of the Kori river, the land would seem to have suddenly sunk from 8 to 12 feet, and the place has since been occupied by an inland lake or lagoon. North of Sindri, after the earthquake was over, a bank about 50 miles long and from 10 to 18 feet high, stood out from the plains which had before stretched as level as the sea. On account of its sudden appearance across the old bed of the Indus, the natives gave to this bank the name of Allah bandh, or 'God's embankment.' Early observers speak of it as an upheaval of the surface. But from the north side there is little sign of any rise in the land; and a few years after its formation (1826), the flood-waters of the Indus, keeping their former course, forced their way through the dam. These two considerations would seem to show that the apparent height of the bank, as seen from the south, is to some extent due to the fall in the level of the land in that direction.

Minerals, etc.—Both iron and coal are found. Iron was formerly smelted, but at present the Cutch mines remain unworked. The coal found in the Chárwár Hills is of an inferior description, and has not been found worth the expenses of working. Alum and a coarse variety of saltpetre are also produced. In former times, alum was prepared in great quantities; but, partly owing to the competition of Chinese alum, and partly because Cutch alum is said to injure cloths prepared with it, the demand has of late years almost entirely ceased. The Karimori Hills furnish strong, tough millstones; and good building stone abounds in Cutch. Some of the best varieties are furnished by the lower jurassic rocks, and others much used are found in the upper tertiary beds. The yellowish marble of Khávda is largely found and exported. There are no forests in the State. Of large game, panthers and wild boar are to be found.

Population and History.—The population of Cutch in 1881 was 512,084 persons, inhabiting 102,007 houses; number of persons per square mile, 78·73; per house, 5·0. The Hindus numbered 325,478; Muhammadans, 118,797; Christians, 96; Jains, 66,663; Pársís, 42; Jews, 19; Sikhs, 30; and aborigines, 959. About 8·7 per cent. of the total population are Rájputs, and 6·9 per cent. Bráhmans; while the cultivating, artisan, and other lower castes of Hindus constitute about

48 per cent. Of the Rájputs, the Ráo and his Bháyád, or 'Brethren of the Tribe,' are Járejas. Among the land proprietors are a few Wághela Rájputs, who reside in the cultivated spots of the arid country between Cutch and Sind. The languages of Cutch are nominally two—Kachchhí (Cutchí) and Gujaráthí; the former being the colloquial dialect, but little used now in literature or business. Gujaráthí is the written language. Persian and Hindustání are but slightly used or known in the Province. The Járeja Rájputs, to which branch the Ráo of Cutch belongs, are descended from the Summa tribe, and came originally from the north. They are said to have emigrated from Sind about the 15th century under the leadership of Jám Lákha, son of Jára, from whom the tribe derive their name. Till 1540, the Jáms ruled over Cutch in three branches; but about that year, Khengár, with the assistance of the Muhammadan King of Ahmadábád, succeeded in making himself head of the tribe, and master of the whole Province. He also obtained from the king the grant of Morvi in the north of Káthiáwár, with the title of Ráo. The Jám Ráwal, the uncle of Khengár, who had, previous to the latter's accession to full power, ruled over a great part of Cutch, fled to Káthiáwár, and founded the present reigning house of Nawánagar, the rulers of which are still called Jáms. For six generations from Khengár, the Ráos succeeded according to primogeniture; but on the death of Ráyadhan, his third son, Prágjí, opened to himself a road to the throne by murder and usurpation. In order, however, to pacify the son of his murdered brother, who had a superior right to the throne, he placed him in independent charge of Morvi, which is still in the possession of his descendants. Khengár gave his own niece, Kamábái, in marriage to the King of Ahmadábád, and one of Khengár's descendants gave his daughter in marriage to the Gáekwár. On the death of Ráo Lakhpat, his sixteen wives burnt themselves on his funeral pile, and their tombs, built in a beautiful group, stand close to the British Residency in Cutch. The practice of female infanticide, for which the Járejas were notorious, is said to have been introduced by the eponymous hero Jára, who killed his seven unmarried daughters because he had failed to find any suitable matches for them.

Agriculture.—There is a fair proportion of good arable soil in Cutch, on which wheat and barley of indifferent quality are cultivated, as well as cotton, the ordinary varieties of millet and pulse, and a little garden produce. Irrigation is practised over a considerable area. The revenue system is the *bhaghatai*, or 'metayer,' and the State share is sold by auction. A high value is set upon the right of occupancy, but in *garásia* villages the cultivators are tenants-at-will. In State lands, the right of occupancy is only accorded to those who have proved themselves worthy of the concession by sinking wells, or converting dry crop into garden land. The revenue survey has been at work for several years, but

on measurement only, not on classification or assessment of the lands. Of domestic animals, the camel is the most important; the Ráo possesses large herds of these animals, as well as of cows and buffaloes. Cutch has long been famous for its horses.

Trade and Manufactures.—Owing to the want of made roads, the country becomes almost impassable during the rainy months. But in the fair season, there is land communication northwards with the south-east Districts of Sind, with Márwár, with North Gujarát, and across the Little Rann with Jhaláwár, the north-eastern division of Káthiáwár. The trade of Cutch is chiefly by sea. The chief imports are of raw produce—grain, butter, sugar, groceries, fruit, and timber; and of manufactured articles—iron, brass, and copper ware, cloth, furniture, stationery, and ivory. The exports are alum and cotton, Indian millet, pulse, and garlic, clarified butter, black coloured cloth, and silver ware. The Rájputána Railway is said to have had an injurious effect on the trade of Cutch, as traffic is diverted to Bombay and Karáchí. In 1881, the imports amounted to £585,340, and the exports to £170,190. The customs dues are for the most part farmed, and in 1881 realized £74,500. From Mándvi, which is the chief port of Cutch between the middle of August and the middle of June, vessels sail to Arabia, Muscat, Sind, Káthiáwár, Bombay, and the Malabár coast. A breakwater to protect the Mándvi harbour is under construction. The Cutch sloops, called *cotiás*, now generally built with decks, are esteemed very good sea-boats; and the Cutch sailors, both Musalmáns and Hindus of the Kolí caste, are equal to any to be found on the western coast of India, both in skill and daring. Mándvi used at one time to have a close connection with Zanzibar, on the African coast, from which were imported ivory, rhinoceros hides, and slaves. The importation of slaves into Cutch was stopped in 1836. Transit duties have been abolished since 1874. As there are no forests in Cutch, timber for building purposes has to be imported. In addition to the beautiful embroidery and silver work, for which Cutch is chiefly noted, its manufactures of silk and cotton are of some importance.

Administration.—The territory of Cutch has a threefold jurisdiction; the first comprises the State (*Khálsa*) portion, under the direct management of the Ráo; the second, the estates of the Bháyád, or cadets of the Ráo's house, a body of feudal landlords; the third jurisdiction is that over seven villages in the centre of the territory, known as the Adhoi sub-division, which is held by one of the leading chiefs of the Ráo's tribe, the Thakúr of Morvi in Káthiáwár. For administrative purposes the State is divided into 8 Sub-divisions, namely, Abdása with Nakhtarána, Auját, Bhachán, Bhúj with Khávda, Lakhpat, Mándvi, Mundra, and Rápar with Khádir, each with an area of about 812 square miles, containing on an average the lands of 130 villages. Popularly,

the province is divided into 7 Districts. The present Ráo of Cutch, who is styled Mahárájá Mírzá Mahá Ráo Srí Khengárjí, was born about 1866, and succeeded on the death of his father, Ráo Pragmuljí, in 1876. He is the head of the Járeja Rájpúts, whose possessions are spread over Cutch and a great part of Northern and Western Káthiáwár. The present ruler is fifteenth in descent from Khengár. The gross revenue in 1881 was stated to be £160,305. The land revenue was formerly farmed out each year, but since the last few years it has been collected by Darbar officials, and is paid in kind, the State share being sold by auction. The Bháyád, who form the brotherhood of the Ráo, are bound to furnish troops on emergency. The number of these chiefs has been estimated at 200, and the total number of the Járeja tribe in Cutch at about 20,000 souls. There have been several dissensions between the Ráo and his Bháyád, in which the British Government has mediated. Their estates do not descend according to primogeniture, but a system of sub-division prevails. The chief of Cutch holds a patent or *sanad* from the British Government authorizing adoption, and in matters of succession the family follows the rule of primogeniture. The aggregate income of the Bháyád is estimated at about £150,000. A regular survey of Cutch is now being carried out, which will, when completed, form a valuable aid towards the general pacification of the country. The chief cause of British intervention has been the suppression of piracy, in which the inhabitants of Wágad, or eastern Cutch, were the chief offenders. *Satí* and female infanticide were at one time very prevalent; the first has been suppressed entirely, and efforts for the suppression of the second have been attended with considerable success. In 1842, the proportion of males to females in the Járeja tribe was found to be as 8 to 1; in 1881 it stood as 2·25 to 1. The proportion of males to females in the total population in 1881, was 1·03 to 1.

The State is by treaty bound to defray the actual expenses of the subsidiary force, stationed in Bhúj for the protection of the country, to the extent of £18,695 a year. The Ráo of Cutch is entitled to a salute of 17 guns. The military force consists of 240 cavalry, 404 foot soldiers, 495 Arabs, and 40 artillerymen. In addition, there are some 3000 irregular infantry, and the Bháyád could furnish on requisition a mixed force of about 4000 men. The police force numbers 602, or 1 man to 10·7 square miles, and to 850 of the population. There are 6 municipalities in the State, of which the principal are Bhúj, with an income in 1882 of £4160; Mándvi, of £3460; and Anjár, of £1160; average incidence of taxation, 2s. per head. The total income from the 6 municipalities in that year amounted to £9990. There were, in 1881-82, 86 recognised schools in the State, with a total attendance of 5342 pupils. The Census Report of 1881, however, returns

combined stream flows into the Bay of Bengal at POINT PALMYRAS under the name of DHAMRA. The Mahánadí, or rather that portion of it which remains in Cuttack District, after many interlacings, forms two great estuaries—one generally known as the DEVI, which, with its connected channel the JOTDAR, enters the bay at the south-eastern corner of the District; and the other, bearing the name of the parent river, the Mahánadí, which empties itself into the sea at FALSE POINT, about half-way down the coast. Each of the three great rivers throws off, on its way through the District, a number of distributaries, those of the Mahánadí being the most numerous and important. The chief of these offshoots of the Mahánadí are the KATJURI (which again splits up into two branches, one of which is called the DEVI, while the other retains the name of Kátjurí) and the PAIKA, from its right or south bank; and the BIRUPA and CHITARTALA (which eventually becomes the NUN), from its north bank. The Bráhmaní receives, soon after its junction with the Baitaraní, an important tributary, the KHARSUA which rises in the Tributary States.

Estuaries and Harbours.—The great rivers of Cuttack thus enter the sea by three noble estuaries,—the DHAMRA, MAHANADI, and DEVI,—which will be fully described under their respective names. The name Dhámrá strictly applies only to the northern and more important of the two channels by which the united waters of the Baitaraní, Bráhmaní, and Kharsuá enter the Bay of Bengal. The southern channel is the Maipárá river, the mouth of which is obstructed by bars and a high surf. The entrance to the Dhámrá, though also difficult, has greatly improved of late years, and is well marked; the minimum reduced depth at the lowest possible tide, according to the latest survey, is 6 feet 10 inches, but during flood-tide vessels drawing as much as 18 feet pass in with safety. The port lies within the jurisdiction of Balasor District, the village of Dhámrá being situated on the north bank of the estuary. The Mahánadí estuary has several mouths, of which the principal debouches through the shoals to the south of the lighthouse on False Point. Although for many miles up the river there is abundant depth for ships of 300 or 400 tons burthen, its mouth is blocked by a bar, which adds to the perils of shoal water the dangers incident to constant changes in the channel. A description of FALSE POINT, and a sketch of the history of the harbour and its trade, will be found in its proper place. Two separate channels lead inland from the anchorage—the JAMBU river on the north, and on the south the BAKUD creek, a short, deep branch of the Mahánadí. Unfortunately for inland navigation by ships, bars of sand intervene between the anchorage and these channels, and, except at high water, block the entrance to both. At full tide, cargo boats and steamers enter with ease. The Deví (which, with its channel the Jotdár, forms the last

part of the great network of rivers into which the Kátjurí branch of the Mahánadí bifurcates) enters the sea south of the boundary of Cuttack District. In this case, too, bars of sand across the mouth of the estuary render what would otherwise be an admirable harbour almost useless. Laden country boats can proceed up the river for a distance of 28 miles in the dry season; and an extensive rice trade has developed at MACHHGAON, about 9 miles from its mouth. A permanent beacon has been erected at the entrance of the estuary. Several tidal creeks, generally very winding and narrow, connect False Point with the Dhámrá and Deví estuaries, and are available for country boats all the year round.

Canals. — The great problem in Orissa is to prevent the rivers from destroying the crops during the rains, and at the same time husband and utilize them for agriculture and commerce in the dry season. The five great rivers which collect the drainage of 63,350 square miles of the hill country towards Central India dash down, in time of flood, 2,760,000 cubic feet of water per second upon the 5000 square miles of the Cuttack and Balasor delta; while, in hot weather, the supply dwindles down to 1690 cubic feet per second. To husband and control this enormous water supply, a vast system of canals was projected. An independent company (the East Indian Irrigation Company), with unguaranteed capital, undertook the execution of the necessary works for the irrigation of the Province, and its protection from floods; and in 1862, operations were commenced. An account of this great undertaking, designed to irrigate a total area of 1,600,000 acres, will be found in the article on ORISSA. The region over which the operations extend reaches along the coast from the CHILKA lake, in the south of Purí District, to the SALANDI (Sálnadí) river in Balasor, and is traversed by the deltaic mouths of the three Cuttack rivers and the Sálandí. The company proved unable to complete their project, and Government took over their whole works from 31st December 1868. The chief canals of the system are four in number—viz. (1) The HIGH LEVEL CANAL, originally designed to provide a navigable trade route between Cuttack and Calcutta *viâ* Midnapur and Ulubáriá; (2) the KENDRAPARA CANAL, extending from Cuttack to Mársághái, and designed to irrigate 385 square miles of country; (3) the TALDANDA CANAL, connecting Cuttack city with the main branch of the Mahánadí within tidal range, and intended both for navigation and irrigation; and (4) the MACHHGAON CANAL, connecting Cuttack with the mouth of the Deví river. The idea of making the High Level Canal a trade route between Cuttack and Calcutta has been abandoned; and the Orissa branch is not carried beyond Balasor District. The Bengal branch, starting from Ulubáriá, stops short at Midnapur town. A steamer traffic is now maintained by way of the canals between the

seaboard at False Point and Cuttack Town, although the great bulk of the trade is carried on by native cargo boats.

Embankments.—It is obvious that the immense volumes of water poured down upon the comparatively small Orissa delta must spread over the country with overwhelming violence. From time immemorial, defensive embankments have existed along the banks of the rivers, but these have hitherto failed to protect the low lands lying between the various deltaic channels. In Cuttack District, 680 miles of Government and private embankments endeavour to regulate 35 rivers or distributaries; and it is recorded that between 1831 and 1867, £157,676 were spent in this District alone on the construction and repairs of these protective works. Adding the amount of revenue remitted in consequence of droughts during the same period, it has been officially estimated that the uncontrolled state of the Cuttack rivers cost during those thirty-six years a sum of £300,000. The two items for remissions of revenue and cost of protective works alone amount to an annual charge of more than 10¼ per cent. on the land revenue of the District. The great inundation of 1866 made no fewer than 413 breaches in Cuttack District, not one of the 35 embanked rivers being effectually controlled.

History. — In historical interest and administrative importance, Cuttack is by far the leading District of Orissa; and the town of the same name has continued to be the capital of the Province for the last 900 years. The District, however, has no separate history apart from that which will be found in the article on ORISSA, to which the reader is referred.

Population.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,494,784 persons, dwelling in 5500 villages, and inhabiting 281,430 houses. The next Census, in 1881, returned the population at 1,738,165, showing an increase of 243,381, or 16·29 per cent., during the 9 years. As explained in the article on Balasor District, this large increase represents an actual advance in the numbers of a population recovering during a series of prosperous years from the devastating famine of 1866. Area of the District in 1881, 3517 square miles; number of villages or towns, 12,841; houses, 344,540, of which 316,436 were occupied and 28,104 unoccupied; average density of population, 494·22 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 3·65; houses per square mile, 97·96; persons per village, 135; persons per inhabited house, 5·49. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 849,254, and females, 888,911; proportion of males in the total population, 48·28 per cent. In religion, the population is almost entirely Hindu. The excess of females is explained by the fact that numbers of men from Cuttack District emigrate to Calcutta and other towns as palanquin-bearers, labourers, and domestic servants, leaving their wives and families behind them.

The Census of 1881 returned the number of Hindus at 1,687,608; Muhammadans numbered 47,259; Christians, 2331; Sikhs, 104; Buddhists, 3; Bráhmos, 3; and 'others,' 857, consisting mainly of aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive faiths. The Census Report, however, includes 58,087 other aboriginal tribes and castes, but classifies them as Hindus in religion.

Among the higher castes of Hindus are the Bráhmans, who number 177,193, and the Rájputs 10,782. Next come the Khandáits, 339,425, the most numerous caste in the District. Their name signifies 'swordsman,' and they originally composed the ancient militia of the country, holding lands on a strictly military tenure. They are now chiefly cultivators. The Goálá, or great pastoral caste, comes next, with 140,870; followed by the Chásá or chief cultivating caste, with 103,314. Next in number come the Páns, a degraded caste of landless day-labourers, 78,967 in number; and the Kandáras, a cognate caste, 73,882 in number. Th other Hindu castes, exceeding 10,000 in number, are represented as follows:—Karan, writers and Government servants, corresponding to the Káyasths of Bengal proper, 41,761; Baniyá, traders, 32,709; Súdra or Sud, a respectable caste of cultivators and domestic servants, 53,436; Nápit, barbers, 33,311; Dhobí, washermen, 33,449; Kumbhár, potters, 19,985; Lohár, blacksmiths, 15,012; Kandu, sweetmeat makers, 15,754; Telí, oil-sellers and traders, 58,559; Tánti, weavers, 41,777; Barhái, carpenters, 19,488; Keut, fishermen, 46,898; Chamárs, skinners and shoemakers, 12,759; Baurí, labourers, 56,819. There were also 31,328 Hindus not recognising caste, of whom 29,614 were Vaishnavs. The aboriginal population returned as Hindus in the Census Report numbered 58,087, including 24,792 Gonds, 2443 Bhuiyás, and 146 Kharwárs. The remainder, 30,706 in number, consist of the wilder tribes, such as the Kandhs, Savars, etc., and are not returned separately in the Census Report. The vast majority of the Hindus are Vishnu-worshippers, but almost all the Bráhmans are Sivaites. The worshippers of Kálí, one of the forms of the wife of Siva, are few in number, and are principally found among the Bengali settlers. The Muhammadans are divided according to sect into—Sunnís, 44,444; Shiás, 799; Wahábis, 2; and unspecified, 2014. Of the 2331 Christians, 278 are Europeans or Americans; 210 Eurasians; 1819 natives; and 24 unspecified. Two peasant colonies of native Christians have been founded by the Cuttack Baptist Mission—one at Chhagán, a village in Athgarh State, but within a short distance of Cuttack town, on the opposite side of the Mahánadí; and the other at Khanditar, on the banks of the Kharsuá river. These little colonies live entirely by agriculture; while the town Christians find employment as Government servants, or in connection with the Mission, or as domestic servants or day-labourers.

The occupations of the male inhabitants of the District are returned in the Census Report in 6 main divisions as follow:—(1) Professional class, including Government officers, military, and the learned professions, 24,974; (2) domestic servants, hotel and lodging-house keepers, etc., 9369; (3) commercial class, including merchants, general dealers, carriers, etc., 12,161; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 265,599; (5) manufacturing, artisan, and other industrial classes, 101,923; (6) indefinite and non-productive (composed of 70,524 general labourers, 13 men of rank and property without occupation, and 364,691 unspecified, including children), 435,228.

The population of the District is almost entirely rural, only 3 towns containing upwards of 5000 souls, namely, Cuttack, 42,656; Kendrapárá, 15,696; and Jájpur, 11,233. Of the 12,841 villages and towns, 10,360 contain less than 200 inhabitants; 2168 have from 200 to 500; 287 from 500 to 1000; 22 from 1000 to 2000; 1 from 2000 to 3000; and 3 upwards of 10,000 inhabitants.

Ethnically, the population consists of three races—Aboriginal, Indo-Aryan or Hindu, and Afghán or Musalmán. The aboriginal tribes, here as elsewhere, cling to their mountains and jungles. They chiefly consist of the Kandhs, Kols and Savars, and a brief account of them will be found in the article on the ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES. They are regarded by the orthodox Hindus as little higher than the beasts of the wildernesses they inhabit. Miserably poor, they subsist for the most part by selling firewood and the other products of their jungles; but a few of them have patches of cultivated land, and many earn wages as day-labourers. They form, in fact, an intermediate stage of destitution between the comparatively well-off tribes in the Tributary States (the home of these races), and the Páns, Baurís, and Kandáras, who now rank as the basest of the Hindu community, but who are supposed to be remnants of the pre-Aryan people, from the similarity of their habits to those of the aborigines in the Tributary States. The great bulk of the Indo-Aryan or Hindu population consists of Uriyás, with a residue of immigrant Bengalis, Lála Káyasths from Behar and Upper India, Maráthás from Central India, and Sikhs from the Punjab. The Musalmán population are the descendants of the northern soldiery who swooped down upon Orissa in 1558, and during subsequent Muhammadan invasions.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop of Cuttack, in common with the other Districts of Orissa, is rice. *Biáli*, corresponding to the *áus* or autumn rice of Bengal, is sown broadcast on high land in May, and reaped in September. A tradition relates that this rice was not created by Brahmá, the author of the universe, but invented by the Sage Viswámitra. It is therefore considered less pure, and its use is prohibited in religious ceremonies. The *sárad* rice corresponds with the

áman or winter crop of Bengal. Some of its varieties are sown on low, marshy ground; others are carefully reared in nurseries, and removed, plant by plant, to higher and drier land. All attempts to introduce Carolina seed into Cuttack District have failed, owing, it is thought, to the unsuitability of the soil. The area under rice has increased by about one-fourth during the last twenty-five years, but the productive powers of the land are said to have diminished. This is accounted for by the constant working, which allows it no rest; and rotation of crops, although known in Cuttack, is not systematically practised. Deficiency of labour is also sometimes alleged as a cause for this decrease of fertility. The large and important public works now in course of construction have, to a small extent, withdrawn hired labour from agriculture; but the demand for it has increased. The other cereals grown in the District are *mándudá* (a grain peculiar to Orissa), wheat, barley; pulses, fibres, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and *pán*, are also produced.

Of the total area of 2,469,300 acres, 1,357,990, or 55 per cent., were returned in the *Statistical Reporter* for October 1876 as cultivated; 242,010, or 10 per cent., as cultivable, but untilled; and 869,300 acres, or 35 per cent., as uncultivable waste. The cultivated area is thus distributed:—Under rainy season crops, 1,407,890 acres; under dry season crops, 97,900 acres; total, 1,505,790 acres, including land bearing two crops in the year. Rice occupies 1,097,000 acres, or 81 per cent. of the cultivated land. The average produce of each crop per acre is thus returned:—Rice, 1000 lbs.; wheat, 150; inferior food-grains, 270; cotton, 150; oil-seeds, 300; fibres, 160; sugar, 120; tobacco, 1000; vegetables, 3500 lbs. In 1882–83 the price of common rice was 4s. 4d. per cwt., and wheat 11s. 6¾d. per cwt. The year was a very favourable one, and the crops exceptionally good. Irrigation has hitherto been conducted almost entirely by means of natural water-courses, but the artificial works now open and in progress fertilize a large proportion of the District.

In the Orissa famine of 1866, the maximum prices reached were as follows:—Best cleaned rice, 3½ *sers* per rupee, or 32s. per cwt.; coarse rice, 4 *sers* per rupee, or 28s. per cwt. A farm of 25 acres or upwards is considered a very large holding; one of between 10 and 25 acres, a good-sized one; and anything much below 10 acres, a small one. Every well-to-do villager has a few acres, and the standard by which a cultivator is judged is the number of ploughs he can command. This, however, is no true criterion as to the value of his farm, inasmuch as some kinds of crops, such as *biali* rice and sugar-cane, require much more ploughing than others. In a holding consisting of two-crop and one-crop land in fair proportions, 6 acres are technically termed a 'plough of land,—*i.e.* the quantity

which a husbandman with one plough and a single pair of bullocks can cultivate. A holding of 12 acres enables a Cuttack cultivator to live quite as well as a respectable shopkeeper, or as a person earning 16s. a month. His family can afford to eat more food than either of these two classes. One-half of the peasantry may be set down as really well off. One-fourth are permanently in debt to the village money-lender or the landlord. The remainder are just able to live, although a change for the better has set in in this respect, and is steadily making progress. Able-bodied pauperism is unknown, except among the religious mendicants. The District seems to be steadily progressing. Vast sums of money have been spent on irrigation works, and much of it sinks into the country. The improvement has probably affected the mercantile and labouring classes more than the actual cultivators. Wages of agricultural day-labourers are generally paid in kind, and do not seem to have altered since 1850. The rate is about 12 to 15 lbs. of unhusked rice per diem. All labour, paid by money, has risen in price. Unskilled labourers now (1883) earn from 3d. to 9d. a day, and skilled artisans in towns from 4½d. to 1s. 6d. a day. Roughly speaking, it may be said that labour fetches double in the towns what it does in the country.

Natural Calamities.—The calamities of Cuttack, as of all the other Orissa Districts, are floods and droughts. The former arise from sudden freshets of the rivers before they enter the District, and not from excessive rainfall within it. Between 1830 and 1876, flood has caused a general destruction of crops in eight years out of the forty-six. For a description of the protective works of Cuttack, see the previous sections on *Canals* and *Embankments*. Drought is more disastrous than flood, and when long protracted, has always been followed by famine. On five different occasions since 1850, drought has occurred on a sufficiently large scale to endanger the safety of the people. For an account of the great famine of 1866, see ORISSA.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Cuttack District are insignificant. Brass vessels, brass ornaments, and coarse cloth are the chief articles made. The total annual out-turn of the cotton looms is roughly valued at £30,000; the brass and copper work at £6000; the oil-pressing at £7600; the joiners' work at £8500. Silver filigree work, the speciality of Cuttack city, is confined to a very few hands, but the work is becoming better known, and the industry is extending. The salt manufacture has greatly declined in this District. In 1875–76, less than 1000 tons were manufactured, against a total consumption of 7407 tons, averaging 11 lbs. per head of the population. There is a considerable iron-smelting industry in the hill country to the south of Cuttack. The total annual out-turn of iron is valued at £20,000.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—Till within the last few years, trade hardly existed in Orissa; but the improvement of False Point Harbour has

recently opened a market for the surplus rice of the Province, and the sea-borne trade of Cuttack District is virtually that of FALSE POINT. During the seven years ending 1875-76, the total imports were valued at £652,800, having risen from £31,000 in 1869-70 to nearly £140,000 in 1875-76. The exports in the same period aggregated £618,609, having increased from £18,000 to £127,000. In 1881-82, the sea-borne imports into Cuttack amounted to £84,716, and the exports to £199,389. The chief road is the Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Ganjám, which enters the District from Balasor. From Cuttack city a branch proceeds due south to the town of Purí. Other important roads are those from Cuttack city to Chándbálí and Taldandá. The total length of all the means of communication was returned as follows in 1876:—Rivers, 527 miles; canals, 135 miles—total mileage of waterways, 662: first-class roads, 72 miles; second-class roads, 173; third-class roads, 336 miles—total mileage of roads, 581. A preliminary survey for a railway to connect Benares with Cuttack has been recently carried out. Besides having a large pilgrim-passenger traffic, the railway, which would traverse Chutiá Nágpur from north-west to south-east, would afford an outlet to the traffic of the plateau to the North-Western Provinces and to Orissa.

Administration.—For 1829-30, the first year in which Cuttack District had an existence in its present circumscribed limits, as distinct from Purí and Balasor, the gross revenue is returned at £139,642, and the gross expenditure at £114,438. In 1860-61, the gross revenue had increased to £202,867, and the disbursements to £193,882. In 1870-1871, the total income realized was £243,958, and the disbursements amounted to £223,659. In 1829-30, the land yielded £79,893; in 1870-71, £84,781; and in 1882-83, £87,482. In 1829, Cuttack District contained 1509 estates, held by 2118 proprietors; by 1870-71, the number of estates had risen to 3571, and of proprietors to 9554. In 1882-83, the separate estates on the District rent-roll numbered 3863. In 1805, when the jurisdiction of Cuttack included also the greater part of Balasor and Purí, the land revenue of the Province amounted to £121,904, or only one-fourth more than that of the single District of Cuttack in 1882. This land revenue was paid by 2275 estates, held by 2517 owners. At the present day, Cuttack District alone contains nearly double this number of estates, and quadruple the number of proprietors. Protection to person and property has increased still more rapidly. In 1816, there were only 4 courts, revenue and judicial, in the whole District. In 1850, the number rose to 11; and in 1882-83, to 13. For police purposes, Cuttack is divided into 9 *thánás* or police circles. In 1881, the regular police consisted of 491 men of all ranks. The municipal force for the protection of the three municipalities of Cuttack, Jájpur,

and Kendrápárá, was 86 strong. The village watch numbered 5541. The total protective machinery of the District, therefore, consisted of 6118 officers and men; equal to an average of 1 man to every ·57 of a square mile as compared with the area, or 1 man to every 284 persons as compared with the population.

There are 4 prisons in Cuttack—viz. the District jail at the civil station, and lock-ups at the sub-divisional towns of Jájpur and Kendrápárá. In 1882, the daily number of prisoners was as follows:—Civil, 8·18; under trial, 21·42; convicts, 268·83: total, 298·43, of whom 15·90 were females. The prison manufactures do not lessen the cost of the jails in any material degree. There is no extramural work.

The number of schools rose from 3 in 1856–57 to 50 in 1870–71, and the number of pupils from 168 to 2755 in the same period. By 1875, the number of inspected schools had further increased to 539, attended by 10,196 pupils; and by 1881–82 to 3804 schools, and to 40,674 pupils. These figures show 1 school to every ·95 square mile of the District area, and 23·4 pupils to every 1000 of the population. This rapid increase is due to the extension of the grant-in-aid rules to previously unaided institutions. The Cuttack High School includes four departments—the college, the law department, medical department, and the *zilá* school; the students on the rolls on the 31st of March 1882 were 38 in the college, 8 in the law class, 30 in the medical class, and 288 in the school. European and Eurasian education was afforded by 2 Roman Catholic and 2 Protestant schools, attended by 229 pupils. Many pupils in the Roman Catholic schools, however, were natives.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Orissa is the same as that of the southern Districts of Bengal. It may be divided into three seasons—the hot, commencing in March; the rainy, in the middle of June; and the cold, in the beginning of November. The Meteorological Department has stations at False Point Lighthouse, and at Cuttack town. The average annual rainfall during the twelve years ending 1881 is returned at 56·59 inches at Cuttack town, and 73·19 inches at False Point. The average mean temperature at Cuttack town in 1881 was 80·8° F.; the maximum recorded being 106·9° in April, and the minimum 51·8° in January. At False Point, the mean temperature was 76·6° F.; maximum, 103·5° in April; minimum, 49·8° in January. Intermittent fever is common throughout the year, and cholera always breaks out in the months of June, July, and August. Measles and small-pox are also prevalent. Cattle-disease of a fatal character often breaks out in Cuttack. There are two charitable dispensaries in the District, viz. the Cuttack Hospital and the Jájpur Dispensary. [For further information regarding Cuttack, see my *Orissa* (2 vols.; Smith & Elder), and *Statistical Account of*

Bengal, vol. xviii. pp. 1 to 243 (Trübner & Co., London, 1877). Also Mr. A. Stirling's *Geographical, Statistical, and Historical Account of Orissa*, published in vol. xv. of the *Asiatic Researches*, and written about 1822; *Sketch of the History of Orissa from* 1803 *to* 1828, by G. Toynbee, Esq., C.S. (Calcutta, 1873); *Census Report of Bengal* for 1881; *Annual Administration Reports of the Government of Bengal*, from 1880 to 1883.]

Cuttack.—Principal or head-quarters Sub-division of Cuttack District, containing an area of 989 square miles, with 4452 villages and towns, and 126,128 occupied houses. Situated between 20° 2′ 45″ and 20° 42′ 0″ N. lat., and between 85° 35′ 0″ and 86° 19′ 0″ E. long. Population (1881), Hindus, 635,241; Muhammadans, 26,159; Sikhs, 96; Buddhists, 3; Christians, 2052; 'others,' 4: total, 663,555, namely, 325,342 males and 338,213 females. Average density of population, 671 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 4·50; houses per square mile, 144; persons per village, 150; persons per house, 5·2. The Sub-division comprises the three police circles (*thánás*) of Cuttack, Sálipur, and Jagatsinghpur. It contained in 1883, 9 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 369 of all ranks, besides 2997 village watchmen.

Cuttack (*Kataka*, 'The Fort').—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Cuttack District, and capital city of the Province of Orissa; situated on the peninsula formed by the bifurcation of the Mahánadí, where it throws off the Kátjurí. Lat. 20° 29′ 4″ N., long. 85° 54′ 29″ E. The city was founded about 900 years ago by one of the kings of the Long-haired or Lion dynasty, and has continued to be the seat of Government to the present day. Its position as the key of the hill territory, and as the centre of the network of the Orissa canals, gives it both military and commercial importance. At present, however, Cuttack is mainly known in the world for its beautiful filigree work in gold and silver. The town contains a population of—Hindus, 33,073; Muhammadans, 7687; Christians and 'others,' 1896: total, 42,656, namely, 22,056 males and 20,600 females. Area of town site, 3112 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £3497; expenditure, £3066; average rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 6d. per head of the town population. The citadel of Cuttack, known as FORT BARABATI, is situated on the south bank of the Kátjurí river, opposite the city. It was taken by storm by the British on the conquest of the Province, in October 1803; and is now in ruins.

Cutwá.—Sub-division and town, Bardwán District, Bengal.—*See* KATWA.

D

Dabein (*Dhabein*).—Tidal creek in Pegu District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It runs between the Pu-zwon-daung and Pegu rivers, and is 15 feet deep at high tide at Dabein village, up to which the largest boats can ascend at all times. In the rains, the water becomes fresh, and it is navigable throughout its entire course.

Dábha.—Petty State of Máhi Kántha, Bombay Presidency; population (1881) 1922; estimated area under cultivation, 5045 acres; revenue, £300. The Chief or Míah pays an annual tribute of £15 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £5 to the Thákur of Amalyára. The present ruler is a Mukwána Kolí, converted to Islám. He has no *sanad* authorizing adoption; the family follows the rule of primogeniture. Transit duties are levied in the State. The religion of the Míahs of Dábha is a mixture of Muhammadanism and Hinduism; they give their daughters in marriage to Muhammadans of rank, and marry the daughters of Kolí chiefs. They burn their dead.

Dábha.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 19° 38′ N., long. 79° 42′ E. Manufactures—*tasar* silk handkerchiefs, coloured cloths, and silver snuff-boxes. Handsome woollen rugs were formerly also made, but this industry has now died out. Small local trade, principally in cotton cloths, groceries, and salt. Until the British occupation, Dábha was subject to the raids of the wild tribes across the Wardhá, and even now the shopkeepers are afraid to expose their goods. Population (1881) 2036. Government school for boys, girls' school, police station-house, and District post-office. The population is almost wholly Telugu.

Dabhoi.—Town in the territory of the Gáekwár of Baroda, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency; 15 miles S.E. of Baroda. Lat. 20° 10′ N., long. 73° 28′ E.; population (1881) 14,925, namely, males 7656, and females 7269. Contains a customs house, police lines, a travellers' bungalow, a railway station, a dispensary, a jail, several schools, and a cotton ginning factory. Dabhoi is connected by railway with Miagám, Baroda, and Chandod. One-third of the population is composed of Muhammadans. In the town is a place called *mámádokri*, where stands a *khirni* or musk-melon tree, through whose hollow trunk no guilty person can pass. Dabhoi is the Sanskrit Dharbhavati of the 11th century, famous for its ancient fortress, and the beauty of its walls and gates.

Dábhol.—Town and port in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Of considerable historical importance, and the principal port of the South Konkan in the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries, carrying on an extensive trade with Persia and the Red Sea ports. Also noted for its

beautiful mosque, which is the only specimen of pure Saracenic architecture in the Southern Konkan. Dábhol was the capital of a province of the Bijápur kingdom under Yusaf Adíl Sháh, which extended from the Sávitri river to Deogarh, including nearly the whole of the present District of Ratnágiri.

Dabka.—Village in Baroda State, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 2823. Situated on the left bank of the Mahi river; 18 miles from Baroda. Noted on account of the deer and boar preserves in the neighbourhood. Contains a police station and school, and a couple of bungalows which are placed at the disposal of British officers who may accompany the Gáekwár on his hunting expeditions.

Dabla.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) Native State, Rájputána. Originally a sub-fief of Bunera, but confiscated by the Ráná, on his feudatory *thákur* becoming insubordinate, and refusing to pay the quit-rent.

Dábling.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 45′ N., and long. 78° 39′ E., on a belt of arable land near the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlej). The cliffs on the opposite side of the river rise to a sheer elevation of 6000 or 7000 feet. The population have the Chinese type of physiognomy, and profess the Buddhist faith. A mile east stands another village, known as Dúbling; the path between the two places is rendered practicable by means of hanging balconies or wooden scaffolds fastened against the face of the precipice. The two villages generally bear the joint appellation of Dábling-Dúbling. Elevation above sea level, 9400 feet.

Dábri.—A guaranteed Thákurate or petty chiefship of the Western Malwá Agency of Central India. Receives £18 per annum from Sindhia on *Haveli* Ujain and on Pán Bahár.

Dabtura.—Village in Bisauli *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, 24 miles distant from Budáun town; only noticeable as being a station on the Chandausi and Bareli branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

Dacca (*Dháká*).—Division or Commissionership of Eastern Bengal, lying between lat. 21° 48′ and 25° 26′ N., and between long. 89° 20′ and 91° 18′ E. Bounded on the north by the Gáro Hills; on the east by Sylhet District, Tipperah, and Noákhálí; on the south by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by Khulná, Jessor, Pabná, Bográ, and Rangpur Districts. Dacca Division comprises the four Districts of Dacca, Farídpur, Bákarganj, and Maimansingh. Area, according to the Census of 1881, 15,000 square miles, containing 28,022 towns and villages, and 1,207,908 houses, of which 1,158,903 were occupied and 49,005 unoccupied. The population in 1881 numbered 8,700,939, against 7,591,768 on a corresponding area in 1872, showing an increase of

1,109,171, or 14·61 per cent., in the nine years between the two Censuses. Number of males in 1881, 4,366,728; females, 4,334,211; average density of population, 580 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·87; inhabitants per town or village, 310; houses per square mile, 80·5; inmates per house, 7·5. According to religious classification, the Muhammadans formed the majority of the population, numbering 5,531,869 against 3,122,624 Hindus. Other religions were represented as follows:—Christians, 15,408; Buddhists, 4859; Bráhmos, 131; Jew, 1; and 'others,' nearly all tribes professing aboriginal faiths, and confined to Maimansingh District, 26,047.

Dacca (*Dháká*, derived either from the *dhák* tree (Butea frondosa) or from *Dhákeswarí*, 'the concealed goddess').—District of Eastern Bengal, situated at the junction of the river systems of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra, between 23° 6′ 30″ and 24° 20′ 12″ N. lat., and between 89° 47′ 50″ and 91° 1′ 10″ E. long. Bounded on the north by the District of Maimansingh; east by Tipperah; south and south-west by Bákarganj and Farídpur; and west, for a short distance, by Pabná. To a great extent, rivers form the natural boundaries: on the east, the Meghná; south and south-west, the Padma, or main stream of the Ganges; and west, the Jamuná, or present channel of the Brahmaputra. The District contained (1881) an area of 2797 square miles, and a population of 2,116,350 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at DACCA CITY.

Physical Aspects.—Dacca consists of a level plain divided into two parts by the Dhaleswarí river, which intersects the District from east to west, varying considerably in their physical aspects. The northern part is again sub-divided by the Lakhmiá river, which crossed it from north to south. The western of these two divisions contains the city, and is the larger of the two. The greater part of it lies comparatively high and above flood level, the soil consisting of red *kankar* with a strata of clay in the more elevated parts, covered by a thin layer of vegetable mould, and near the banks of the rivers and streams by alluvial earth. At some points, the scenery on the river Lakhmiá is very beautiful, the banks being high and well wooded. About twenty miles north of the city, small hilly ridges are met with in the Madhupur jungle adjoining Maimansingh. They are mere mounds, or *tilás*, never more than 30 or 40 feet high, some being covered with grasses and underwood, and others with forest. This tract of country is remarkable for the small size of the streams by which it is watered, and the greater part is an unproductive waste covered with jungle and infested with wild beasts. Of late years, cultivation has been extended in this direction, but very slowly, owing to the badness of the water. Towards the city, the red soil is intersected by creeks and morasses, the borders of which are well suited for the cultivation of rice, mustard, and *til* seed; while to the

eastward of the city, a broad, alluvial, well cultivated plain extends as far as the junction of the Dhaleswarí and Lakhmiá rivers. The north-eastern division is situated between the Lakhmiá and Meghná rivers. It is inundated to a larger extent, and has a much greater area of alluvial soil, and is in a higher state of cultivation than the tract to the westward. The division of the District to the south of the Dhaleswarí is by far the most fertile tract. The whole is one uniform level of rich alluvial soil annually inundated by the overflow of the great rivers, to a depth varying from two to fourteen feet. The villages are built upon mounds of earth, artificially raised above flood level. During the rainy season this tract presents the appearance of a vast sheet of green rice cultivation, through which boats sail to and fro ; diversified of late years by fields of jute, the cultivation of which is rapidly extending.

The District is intersected by a complete network of rivers and streams, and the chief means of communication at all times of the year is by water. Besides the great bordering rivers of the Ganges or Padmá, the Jamuná or Brahmaputra, and the Meghná, the following seven streams are navigable by boats of large tonnage :—(1) Ariál Khán, (2) Kirtinásá, (3) Dhaleswarí, (4) Burígangá, (5) Lakhmiá, (6) Mendíkhálí, and (7) Ghážíkhálí. Many of these represent old channels or offshoots of the great rivers ; and the southern half of the District is everywhere liable to annual changes of configuration, due to constant fluvial action. The most important of the smaller rivers, which are all navigable by boats of two tons burthen, are—(1) Hilsámárí, (2) Bansí, (3) Turág, (4) Tungí, (5) Balú, and (6) the old bed of the Brahmaputra. The banks of all the above rivers are cultivated, with the exception of a small tract along the Lakhmiá river, and all are more or less affected by the tide, which rises and falls to the extent of two feet at the town of Dacca on the Burígangá. Numerous marshes have been formed by changes in the courses of the rivers, and are covered with rank vegetation. Several artificial watercourses or *kháls* have been constructed as short cuts to facilitate cross communications between the rivers. The drainage of the District runs from north-west to south-east, the usual course of the rivers. All the latter take their exit in the extreme south-east of the District, at the point of junction of the two great rivers the Ganges and Meghná, into which the other streams of the District flow. With the exception of some wild herbs and water plants, no indigenous vegetable products of marketable value are found. There are no forests of any considerable extent, and most of the wooded land in the Madhupur jungle is so badly provided with means of communication as to be almost valueless. Nor is there any wide extent of uncultivated pasture ground, although many people send their cattle for a few months in the rainy season to the Madhupur jungle for pasturage. The fisheries of the District are estimated to yield

altogether about £10,000 a year. The wild animals generally are of the same species as those found in the other parts of the Gangetic delta.

History.—The historical interest of the District centres round Dacca city, an olden capital of the Muhammadan Mughals in Bengal, and, until recent times, the industrial centre of the Province. Here, as elsewhere throughout Bengal, authentic history begins with the Musalmán chronicles; but many local legends and crumbling ruins bear witness to the power of pre-historic Hindu rulers. This tract of country formed the easternmost District of Bengal, according to the natural limitations of the Province. On the north, rise the broken hills and thick jungles of Maimansingh, into which Hindu civilisation has but recently penetrated. Eastwards, the broad stream of the Meghná always served as a barrier against the wild aboriginal races, whose names are preserved in the dynasties of Tipperah and Cachar. Before the invasion of the Muhammadans, only part of Dacca appears to have been included within the Hindu kingdom of Bengal. The course of the river Dhaleswarí, which marks off the alluvial delta of the Ganges from the highlands of Maimansingh, then served also as a political boundary. To the south of this river, the mythical monarch Vikramáditya is said to have held sway, and his name is traced in the present *parganá* of Bikrámpur. The dynasty of Vikramáditya was succeeded by that of Adisur, and the last authentic Hindu occupant of the throne was Ballál Sen, whose connection with Bikrámpur is proved by contemporary inscriptions. All these names are the common property of Bengali legend throughout the Province. The tract north of the Dhaleswarí supplies traditions with a more distinct local colouring. Here was the home of the Bhuiyá Rájás, as they are called, the founders of a dynasty which bore the family name of Pál, and are supposed to have professed the Buddhist faith. The ruins of the capitals and palaces of these Bhuiyá Rájás lie scattered throughout Eastern Bengal, along the line of the Brahmaputra valley; and their memory is still cherished in the household tales of the Hindu peasantry. In the portion of Dacca District lying north of the Dhaleswarí, extensive earthworks and mounds of brick associated with their name are to be seen to this day at Madhabpur, Sábhár, and Durduriá.

The Muhammadans first entered Bengal in 1203 A.D., but the eastern Districts were not conquered until a century later. The present District of Dacca was annexed to the Afghán kingdom of Gaur by Muhammad Tughlak about 1325, under the name of SONARGAON, which town long remained the frontier fortress of the Muhammadans and the terminus of their grand trunk road. The rise of Dacca city dates from the beginning of the 17th century, when Islám Khán, the Mughal Viceroy, transferred the seat of Government from Rájmahál to Dacca. This change was dictated by military considerations. The valley of the

Ganges then enjoyed peace, but the eastern frontier of the Province was exposed to the ravages of numerous warlike invaders. From the north, the dreaded Ahams or Assamese; from the south, the Maghs or Arakanese, in alliance with the merciless Portuguese pirates, harried the country, and rendered all the waterways unsafe. The Mughal Viceroys protected their frontier by maintaining a powerful fleet, and distributing colonies of veterans on feudal holdings throughout the country. Both these features of their political system have left traces in the land tenures that exist at the present day. Except during an interval of twenty years, when Muhammad Shujá moved the administration back again to Rájmahál, Dacca was the capital of Bengal during the whole of the 17th century. In the long list of Nawábs, the two most celebrated are Mír Jumlá, the general of Aurangzeb, who failed disastrously in his expedition into Assam; and Sháistá Khán, the nephew of the Empress Núr Jahán, who broke the power of the Portuguese, and annexed Chittagong to the Mughal Empire. Both these Nawábs are also known for their encouragement of architecture, and for the construction of public works. This was the most flourishing era in the history of Dacca, for, like all eastern cities, its glory depended upon the presence of a luxurious court. It is said that the suburbs extended northwards for a distance of 15 miles, now buried in dense jungle. Portuguese mercenaries, and Armenian and Greek merchants, settled at Dacca from an early date. The English, the French, and the Dutch established factories about the middle of the 16th century, when the city was visited by the French traveller Tavernier. He describes all the wealth of Bengal, the richest Province of the Delhi Emperor, as concentrated in this spot. The muslins of Dacca became famous in Europe, and the hereditary skill of the weaving castes has not yet become extinct. *Vide* DACCA CITY.

The downfall of Dacca dates from the beginning of the 18th century. In 1704, Murshid Kulí Khán transferred the seat of government to Murshidábád on the Bhágírathí, and the short-lived prosperity followed the movement of the court. Dacca continued to be governed by a *náib* or *nawáb*, a deputy of the Viceroy at Murshidábád, whose appointment was regarded as the most valuable in Bengal, having a jurisdiction considerably more extensive than the area of the present Dacca Division. On the establishment of the British power in 1757, the office of *náib* became an empty title, but it was continued in the family of the last representative until 1845; and even to the present day, small pensions are paid by Government on this account. The decline of the weaving industry of Dacca began with the present century. Prior to 1801, the East India Company and private traders are said to have made advances for Dacca muslins to the annual amount of 25 *lákhs* of rupees (£250,000). In 1813, the investments of private

traders did not exceed £21,000, and the Commercial Residency of the Company was discontinued altogether in 1817. The only event of importance in the recent history of Dacca District is connected with the Mutiny of 1857. Two companies of sepoys were then stationed in the fort. On the first alarm of the outbreak at Meerut, a force of 100 men of the Indian Navy was despatched from Calcutta for the protection of the city. With these sailors, and about 60 civilian volunteers, it was resolved to disarm the sepoys, who offered a violent resistance, and were only dispersed after a sharp struggle, in which 41 rebels were killed on the field, and a number of others drowned in the river or shot down in their flight. Some of the mutineers are supposed to have escaped into the jungles of Bhután.

Population.—No trustworthy estimates of the population in early times exist. In 1851, the total number was returned at 600,000, and in 1868 the official estimate was 1,000,000. The first regular Census was taken in January 1872. The result disclosed a total population of 1,852,993 persons, dwelling in 5016 villages, and in 290,593 houses, over an area as at present of 2797 square miles. The last Census in 1881 returned the population at 2,116,350, showing an increase of 263,357, or of 14·21 per cent., in the nine years. The Census Report states that this advance is to be attributed to natural causes, aided by the great development of the jute trade, which is centred in the town of Náráinganj, the head-quarters of the Sub-division of the same name, in which the largest increase of population is found. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2797 square miles; number of towns and villages, 6422; number of houses, 319,982, of which 308,695 were occupied and 11,287 unoccupied. The population numbered 2,116,350, namely, 1,033,863 males and 1,082,487 females. Average density of population, 756·6 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·3; persons per town or village, 329; houses per square mile, 114; persons per occupied house, 6·86. Classified according to religious belief, the population was returned as follows:—Muhammadans, 1,250,687, or 59 per cent.; Hindus, 856,680, or 40 per cent. The remainder consisted of 8799 Christians, 49 Buddhists, 43 Bráhmos, 2 Santáls, and 90 'others.' As throughout the rest of Eastern Bengal, the majority of the population are of semi-aboriginal descent, including the great mass of the Muhammadans, who constitute a very important element of the community, in rank as well as in numbers. The great majority belong to the Sunní sect. The few Shiás to be found are descendants of the Mughal conquerors. The festival of the Muharram is celebrated in Dacca city with great pomp and enthusiasm, and police measures have occasionally to be adopted to prevent an outbreak between these two rival sects. In recent years, the

reforming faith of the Faráizís has spread rapidly through the District. (*See* FARIDPUR DISTRICT.) Its members are intolerant, but not actively fanatical. Many of them are engaged in trade, dealing in rice, jute, hides, and tobacco. In clan or race distinction the Muhammadans are almost all Shaikhs; the Sayyids, Mughals, and Patháns being few in number. The latter were, however, at one time numerous in the District, and a few of their descendants are still to be met with at the village of Patháńtálí, near Dhámrái. During the Muhammadan supremacy, large numbers of Hindu inhabitants of the District were converted to Islám, either willingly or through coercion. The Musalmán religion is not now an actively proselytising one in Dacca District, although it from time to time receives small additions from the Hindu and Vaishnav communities. The aborigines proper are very poorly represented, being chiefly composed of the gipsy tribe of Nats. Among the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the great tribe of Chandáls numbers 202,510, and the Koch 13,498. Of the Hindus proper, the following are the principal castes:—Bráhman, 60,542, including many Kulin families; Káyasth, or clerks by hereditary occupation, 92,909. The most numerous of the other recognised castes are—Baniyá, traders, 14,971; Barhai, carpenters, 15,336; Baruí, growers of pán and betel leaf, 17,524; Dhobí, washermen, 11,028; Goálá, milkmen and herdsmen 25,327; Jaliyá, fishermen, 39,274; Jugí, weavers, 17,080; Kaibartta, cultivators and fishermen, 40,422; Lohár, blacksmiths, 16,747; Kapalí, weavers, 18,585; Kumbhár, potters, 17,015; Nápit, barbers, 21,905; Súdra, the highest class of cultivators, 17,392; Súnrí, merchants and wine-sellers, 57,917; Telí, traders and oil-pressers, 15,966. Among caste-rejecting Hindus, the Vaishnav sect numbers 17,239 members. The Bráhma Samáj was first established in Dacca city in 1846. The society now possesses a large hall, erected by public contributions, in which meetings are held every week. There are about 100 regular subscribers, and at least 1000 sympathizers, throughout the District. Only 43 professing Bráhmos were, however, returned separately as such in the Census Report. The Christians of Dacca, numbering 8799 of all races and sects, are a motley race. They include Portuguese half-castes, Armenians, Greeks, and native converts, as well as the Europeans. The Portuguese mixed breeds, or Firinghís, are scattered in little communities throughout the District. Most of them are cultivators, but many engage in domestic service. In religious matters they are subject to the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Goa. The native converts or their descendants, numbering 7710 persons, are principally either Roman Catholics, under the charge of a mission sent direct from the Propaganda at Rome, numbering 3987 adherents; or Baptists, under the charge of an active mission which in 1881 numbered 4319 followers. Both the Armenians and

the Greeks are said to be now declining in numbers and social position.

According to the Census of 1881, the following are the only 7 towns, or collections of villages, containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants, namely, DACCA CITY, population 79,076; NARAINGANJ, with MADANGANJ, 12,508; MANIKGANJ, 11,289; CHARJAJIRA, 7647; SHOLAGARH, 6079; KAMARGAON, 5770; and NARISHA, 6377. Total of these 7 towns, 128,646, leaving 1,987,604 as the rural population. The first three named towns have been constituted municipalities, with a total income in 1881-82 of £12,863, and an expenditure of £13,898; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 1½d. per head of the population living within municipal limits. The 6422 towns and villages in the District are classified as follows:—3405 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1917 contain from two to five hundred; 805 from five hundred to a thousand; 238 from one to two thousand; 40 from two to three thousand; 10 from three to five thousand; 4 from five to ten thousand; 2 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants. DACCA CITY will be fully described in a succeeding article. The chief mart in the District is NARAINGANJ, in conjunction with its suburb of Madanganj on the opposite side of the Lakhmiá river, which is rapidly taking its stand as one of the most important trade centres of Eastern Bengal. Apart from that caused by the increasing importance of river traffic, the people show no tendency to gather into towns, but rather the reverse. Manufacturing industry can hardly be said to exist. The following places deserve mention as sites of interest:—SONARGAON, the first Muhammadan capital of Eastern Bengal; FIRINGHI BAZAR, the earliest settlement of the Portuguese; BIKRAMPUR, the capital of the mythical monarch Vikramáditya, and his successors on the throne of Bengal; SABHAR and DURDURIA, both containing ruins of palaces ascribed to the Bhuiyá or Pál Rájás. Many earthworks and ruins of Hindu or Musalmán construction are scattered through the District.

The Material Condition of the People has much improved of late years, and particularly that of the cultivating classes. This is partly owing to the increased prices of produce, but is also very greatly due to the increase in the cultivation of more valuable crops, especially of jute, safflower, and oil-seeds. The only persons who do not share in the general increased prosperity are those with fixed incomes, such as subordinate landlords (*tálukdárs*), Government servants, and minor officials. As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 classifies the male population into the following six main classes:—Class (1) Professional, including Government officials, police and military, 23,391; (2) Domestic service, including hotel and lodging-house keepers, 29,777; (3) Commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, messengers, etc., 53,532;

(4) Agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, herdsmen, and others engaged about animals, 412,269; (5) Manufactures and industries, 81,646; (6) Indefinite and unproductive (composed of 22,239 general labourers, and 411,009 male children and persons of no specified occupation), 433,248.

Agriculture.—As elsewhere throughout Bengal, the staple food crop is rice, which is divided into four varieties—(1) the *áman*, or cold weather crop, which yields by far the largest portion of the food supply, sown on low-lying lands about April, and reaped in December; (2) the *áus*, or autumn crop, sown on comparatively high lands, about the same time as *áman*, and reaped in July and August; (3) the *bora* or *ropá* sown in marshy ground about January, subsequently transplanted, and reaped in May; (4) the *uri* or *jará dhán*, an indigenous variety found growing wild in the marshes, which is used as food by the poor. No improvement has recently taken place in the cultivation of rice, and sufficient is not grown to satisfy the local demand. Other crops include millets, pulses, oil-seeds, jute (the cultivation of which has greatly extended of late years), cotton, safflower, *pán* leaf, areca-nut, cocoa-nut, and sugar-cane. The cultivation of cotton has fallen off, but the fibre produced is said to be of excellent quality. The chief staples of export are jute, oil-seeds, and safflower, all of which are being more extensively grown year by year. Manure is not generally used, and never for rice land. Irrigation is sometimes practised in the north of the District; and, in the same tract, fields are occasionally suffered to lie fallow. In the south, the land is under continuous cultivation with the same crops, and the cultivators trust to the deposit left by the annual inundation to maintain the fertility of their fields. About two-thirds of the total area of the District is estimated to be under cultivation. The out-turn of rice varies from 13 cwts. to 26 cwts. per acre. The best rice lands yield a second crop of oil-seeds or pulses. The out-turn of jute is about 17 cwts. per acre. The cultivators, as a class, are described as fairly prosperous. Comparatively few of them have obtained rights of occupancy; but the recent rise in the value of all agricultural products, caused by the development of trade, has distinctly raised the standard of comfort among them. Rates of rent for rice land vary from 1s. 10d. per acre for *boro* to 9s. per acre for *áman* land. Land that produces two crops sometimes rents at as much as 12s. an acre. As compared with the neighbouring Districts, Dacca has few great landlords, and sub-infeudation has not been carried to an excessive extent. There are seldom more than two classes of intermediate tenure-holders between the *zamíndár* and the actual cultivator. In the majority of cases, the landowner collects his rents by the agency of his own servants, and not through the intervention of a farmer. Spare land at the present day is only to be found in the hilly, broken

tract in the north of the District, where the aboriginal tribes are gradually extending the limit of cultivation.

Dacca District is not specially subject to natural calamities, such as flood, blight, or drought. Each of these does occasionally happen, but rarely on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. In the year 1777-78, a terrible inundation occurred, succeeded by a calamitous famine. But, in more recent times, the drought of 1865 and the flood of 1870 merely raised the prices of grain, and did not produce acute distress. If the price of rice at the beginning of the year were to rise to 16s. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching scarcity. At the present time the means of communication with other Districts by water are so good, and the ordinary course of trade is so active, that importation could at any time prevent scarcity from growing into famine. There is no demand for either embankments or canals.

Industrial.—The chief means of communication are by water. The rivers are crowded by native craft and by steamers at all seasons of the year, and no corner of the District is remote from some navigable channel. The principal road, the only one under the Public Works Department, leads from Dacca city through Tipperah to Chittagong. A second important road runs northward through the high country to Maimansingh. A line of railway from Dacca to Maimansingh has been sanctioned, and is now (1884) in course of construction, and will shortly be continued to Chittagong, viâ Náráinganj, crossing the Meghná by means of a steam ferry. The only road that carries much traffic is the branch from Dacca city to the port of Náráinganj, which is metalled. There are two short navigable canals, only open during the rainy season. The principal manufactures are cotton-weaving, embroidery, silver-work, shell-carving, and pottery. The muslins of Dacca, once so celebrated, have now almost entirely ceased to be made. A few pieces are occasionally woven to order, to satisfy the taste of the curious. Coarse cotton cloth is still woven all over the District. The gold and silver smiths and the shell-carvers work in their own houses, and on their own account; and their condition is decidedly prosperous. The weavers and embroiderers, on the other hand, manufacture their goods on behalf of merchants, working on a system of advances. The merchants take care that the artisan shall always continue in their debt.

Dacca conducts a very large trade by water, and many of the merchants push their enterprise into remote countries. Europeans, Armenians, Muhammadans, and Márwárís maintain a brisk competition with each other. In former times, the export of manufactured cotton goods was by far the most important branch of trade. The two largest marts of commerce are Dacca city and the rapidly rising mart of Náráinganj, with its suburb of Madanganj. A commercial fair is

annually held at Munshiganj, lasting for three weeks, which is attended by merchants from such distant quarters as Delhi, Amritsar, and Arakan. According to the registered statistics of river traffic for the year 1876–77, the total value of the exports from Dacca District was £1,944,000, including—jute, £742,000; rice, £232,000; hides, £131,000; oil-seeds, £51,000; spices, £46,000; betel-nuts, £39,000; safflower, £19,000. The total value of the imports was £3,245,000, the chief items being—piece-goods, £795,000; salt, £304,000; food grains, £366,000; tobacco, £169,000; sugar, £255,000; timber, £135,000. No later District trade statistics are available, as since 1878 the system of collection of statistics for the internal trade of Bengal has been altered, and is now limited to the registration of the trade of the ports of Calcutta, Chittagong, and Orissa, and of that carried on along the chief railway, river, and canal routes.

In 1882 there were six printing-presses in the District, and six or eight newspapers or periodicals are published regularly. There are about forty native societies organized for the spread of education and for charitable objects, besides 'The Dacca Institute,' common to natives and Europeans.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the total revenue of Dacca District was £111,620, of which £53,671 was derived from the land; the total expenditure was £50,631, or less than half the revenue. In 1881–82, the total revenue, Imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £149,320, of which £49,312 was derived from the land, £22,592 from excise, and £57,053 from stamps. The cost of civil administration, as represented by the pay of officials and police of all kinds, was £46,502. In the same year, the regular police force numbered 412 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £9077. In addition, the village watch numbered 3479 men, who received from the villagers and Government rent-free lands or money estimated at £14,917; and the municipal police consisted of a force of 277 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £2425. The total force, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 4168 men, or 1 man to every 0·6 square miles, or to every 507 of the population; the total cost was £26,419, being an average of £9, 8s. 10d. per square mile, and 3d. per head of population. In 1881–82, the average daily number of prisoners in the District jail was 723, of whom 8 were females; in the subsidiary jail of Munshiganj, the daily average prison population was 6, and in that of Mánikganj, 5; total daily average of prisoners, 784, or 1 to every 2828 of the population.

Education has made rapid progress in recent years. In 1860–61, there were altogether 21 schools in the District, attended by 2003 pupils. By 1870–71, the number of schools had risen to 149, and the number of pupils to 7155. Sir G. Campbell's reforms, by which the

benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the village schools or *páthsálás*, has greatly promoted primary instruction. In 1874-75, the number of schools had further increased to 416, and the number of pupils to 17,937, and in 1881-82 to 990 educational institutions under Government inspection, attended by 27,000 pupils. The great increase has been in the lower primary schools, which in March 1882 numbered 913 out of the 990 Government schools, with 23,849 out of the 27,000 pupils. Besides these State-inspected schools, the Education Department returns 286 unaided indigenous schools, with 3558 pupils, making a total of 1276 schools attended by about 30,000 pupils. The chief educational institution is the Dacca College, originally started in 1835, attended in 1882 by 290 students, and taught by a staff of six professors and lecturers. Special classes for law, medicine, and surveying are affiliated to the College; to which is also attached the District Collegiate or High School, attended in 1882 by 521 pupils. Female education is afforded in 26 schools, of which the most important is the Eden School in Dacca city, with an attendance in 1882 of 199 girls. A Normal Training School for Masters had 64 students. For the special necessities of the Muhammadans, a *Madrása* or Muhammadan College had 332 pupils, of whom 113 were in the Arabic, and 219 in the English department.

For administrative purposes, Dacca District is divided into 4 Sub-divisions, and into 12 *thánás* or police circles, as follows:—(1) Dacca or head-quarters Sub-division, comprising the police circles of Lálbágh, Kapásia, Sabhar, and Nawábganj; (2) Náráinganj, comprising the police circles of Náráinganj, Rúpganj, and Ráipura; (3) Mánikganj, comprising the police circles of Mánikganj, Jafarganj, and Harirámpur; and (4) Munshiganj, comprising the police circles of Munshiganj and Srínagar. The number of *parganás* or fiscal divisions is 182. In the year 1883, there were 11 magisterial and 15 civil and revenue courts open; the number of European covenanted officers stationed in the District was 4.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Dacca during the hot months is sensibly cooled by the circumstance that the wind has passed over the wide surface of large rivers. The rainy season lasts from April to October. The most disagreeable weather in the year is experienced at the close of this season. The average rainfall for thirty years ending 1881 was 74·73 inches. The rainfall in 1881 was 79·06 inches, or 4·33 inches above the average. The average mean temperature in 1881 was 78·8° F., the maximum being 99·5° in April, and the minimum 48·2° in January. Earthquakes are of common occurrence. Specially severe shocks were experienced in April 1762, April 1775, and May 1812.

The principal endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers,

elephantiasis and bronchocele, dysentery and diarrhœa, rheumatism, ophthalmia, and intestinal worms. Cholera and small-pox both occasionally visit the District in an epidemic form. No attention whatever is paid to sanitation in the rural tracts; but the munificence of the late Nawáb Abdul Gani some years ago presented Dacca city with a fund for undertaking sanitary improvements, and also with a pure water supply. The institutions for medical relief comprise the lunatic asylum, the Mitford Hospital, an almshouse founded in 1866 by Nawáb Abdul Gani, and 9 charitable dispensaries. In 1881, the dispensaries and the hospital were attended by 3530 in-door and 66,304 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Dacca District, see my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. v. pp. 1–153 (Trübner & Co., London, 1875); also the *History and Statistics of the Dacca Division*, by A. L. Clay, Esq., C.S. (Calcutta, 1867); *Topography and Statistics of Dacca*, by Dr. D. J. Taylor (1840); *Census Report of Bengal* for 1881; *Annual Administration Reports of the Bengal Government* from 1880–83.]

Dacca.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Dacca District, lying between 23° 34′ and 24° 20′ 12″ N. lat., and between 90° 2′ 45″ and 91° 1′ 10″ E. long.; including DACCA CITY. Area, 1266 square miles; towns and villages, 2082; occupied houses, 108,512. Population (1881), males 343,228, and females 355,801; total, 699,029. Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 378,834; Hindus, 314,613; Christians, 5524; Buddhists, 11; Bráhmos, 43; 'others,' 4. Average number of persons per square mile (exclusive of Dacca city), 552; villages per square mile, 1·64; persons per village, 305; houses per square mile, 90; inmates per house, 6·4. Dacca Sub-division comprises the 4 police circles of Lál Bágh, Sábhár, Kápásiá, and Nawábganj. In 1883, it contained 8 civil courts, besides an honorary Magistrate's court, and a municipal bench in Dacca city; and 8 criminal courts. The police force consisted of 479 regular police of all ranks, and 1001 village watchmen.

Dacca.—The city of Dacca, the chief town of the District and Commissionership of the same name, and the fifth largest city under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, is situated on the north bank of the Buríganga river (formerly, no doubt, as its name implies, the main stream of the Ganges), in 23° 43′ N. lat., and 90° 26′ 25″ E. long., 8 miles above the confluence of the Buríganga with the Dhaleswari. The municipal limits include an area of about 8 square miles, and the population, according to the Census of 1881, numbers 79,076 persons. In 1881–82, the municipal income was £11,342; rate of taxation, 2s. 5d. per head.

The town extends along the bank of the river for a distance of nearly 4 miles, and inland, towards the north, for about one mile and a quarter.

It is intersected by a branch of the Doláí creek. The two principal streets cross each other at right angles. One runs parallel to the river for upwards of two miles, from the Lál Bágh Palace to the Doláí creek. The other leads north from the river to the old military cantonments; it is about one mile and a quarter in length, of considerable width, and bordered by regularly built houses. The *chauk* or market-place, a square of fine dimensions, lies at the extreme west. The remainder of the town is composed of narrow, crooked lanes, few of which admit wheeled conveyances. The native houses vary in height from one to four storeys. In some of the crowded quarters, such as those occupied by the weavers and shell-carvers, each house has a frontage of only 8 or 10 feet; but the side-walls run back for a distance of 60 feet. The two ends only of such houses are roofed in, the middle forming an open court. The houses of the European residents extend along the river for a space of about half a mile, in the centre of the town. In the Armenian and Greek quarters, there are several large brick houses, now falling into decay. Dacca preserves few traces of its former magnificence as the Muhammadan capital of Bengal during the 17th century. The old fort, erected in the reign of the Emperor Jahángír, has entirely disappeared. The only public buildings of this period still remaining are the Katrá, built by Sultán Muhammad Shujá in 1645; and the palace of the Lál Bágh, which several successive Nawábs intended to associate with their name, but which was never completed. Both these buildings are now mere ruins, and their decorations have been wantonly destroyed. The factories built by the English, the French, and the Dutch during the 17th century have also been swept away. An outline of the history of the city has been given in the preceding article on DACCA DISTRICT. The city was first selected as the seat of the Muhammadan Government of Bengal about 1610, owing to its convenient position for controlling the waterways of the delta, which were then ravaged by Portuguese pirates in alliance with the Arakanese. In 1704, the Nawáb Murshíd Kulí Khán moved his residence to Murshidábád; and though Dacca long retained a titular Nawáb, its glory departed with the removal of the court. When in the height of its prosperity, Dacca must have been very populous. Its suburbs are said to have extended 15 miles northwards, as far as the village of Tungí, where mosques and brick houses are still to be discovered buried beneath thick jungle. During the 18th century, Dacca won a new reputation for its manufacture of fine muslins, which became famous in the markets of the West. The cotton grown in the neighbourhood is said to be of peculiarly fine quality. The weavers, who were mostly Hindus, attained a wonderful delicacy of taste and dexterity of manipulation, by means of hereditary devotion to their industry. At the close of the last century, the annual investment made

by the East India Company and by private traders for Dacca muslins was estimated at £250,000. But in the beginning of the present century, this industry began rapidly to decline, under the competition of cheaper piece-goods from Manchester. By 1813, the value of the private trade had fallen to £20,000, and four years later, the Commercial Residency of the Company was closed. The prosperity of the city has never recovered from this second blow. The reduced and impoverished population, the ruinous and abandoned houses, still show the disastrous results of the loss Dacca has sustained in her cotton manufactures. In 1800, the number of inhabitants was estimated, and apparently not over-estimated, at 200,000; in 1872, a Census of the town showed that the total had fallen to 69,212. A small colony of weavers of muslin still exists, who produce fabrics of exceptional excellence, working under a system of advances from native capitalists. In recent years, the general development of trade throughout Bengal has brought back to Dacca a little of its former wealth, and the city is now increasing in population. The city is favourably situated to command the three river systems of the Ganges, the Brahmaputra, and the Meghná. If we include the commerce of Náráinganj and Madanganj, which may be regarded as the river ports of Dacca, its total trade exceeds that of any inland mart of Bengal except Patná. The collection of jute, oil-seeds, rice, and hides, and the distribution of piece-goods and salt, constitute the most important functions of the Dacca merchants; and Dacca boatmen are well known throughout Bengal as the most adventurous of their class. In the year 1876–77, the total trade of Dacca city, excluding Náráinganj and Madanganj, was valued at £1,183,000. The chief articles of export were—hides, £130,000; jute, £79,000; food grains, £41,000; the imports included—piece-goods, £436,000; cotton twist, £79,000; timber, £35,000; and salt, £25,000. As explained on p. 87, in the article on Dacca city, no later trade statistics are available under the new system of registration.

The population of the city is thus classified in the Census Report of 1881:—Hindus, males 22,774, females 16,861—total, 39,635; Muhammadans, males 18,634, females 20,279—total, 38,913; Christians and others, males 295, females 233—total, 528. Grand total, males 41,703, females 37,373—total, 79,076. The large proportion of females among the Muhammadan population is worthy of notice. The total of Christians includes a few Armenians and Greeks, who formerly conducted a considerable share of the trade of the city. Foremost among the citizens of Dacca may be mentioned the late Nawáb Abdul Gani, C.S.I., who in 1866 founded the Langar Khána, or almshouse, for the accommodation of poor persons permanently disabled from work. He subsequently made a donation of £5000 to the municipality for the carrying out of sanitary improvements; and in 1878, a system of

water-works was opened, which he had constructed for the city at his own expense.

Dacca is well provided with educational institutions. The Dacca College, with a staff of European professors, is one of the best of its class in India. In connection with the college there is an English school department, and English is also taught at the five following institutions:—The Pogose School, established by a wealthy Armenian gentleman; Nawáb Abdul Ganí's school; the Jagannáth school, founded by a Hindu *zamíndár* in memory of his father; the Ruplál Raghúnáth school, established by the liberality of two wealthy native gentlemen of the above names; and the Muhammadan *Madrása*.

Until the conservancy reforms effected by the aid of the liberality of Nawáb Abdul Ganí, the sanitary condition of Dacca city was very unsatisfactory. During the rainy season, the whole city is surrounded by a labyrinth of brimming creeks, and the low-lying suburbs are liable to be flooded every year. In former times, the simplest rules of conservancy were disregarded, and much difficulty has been experienced in overcoming the traditional prejudices of all classes of the community. It is hoped, however, that the health of the city will now be sensibly improved by recent reforms, and by the introduction of a pure water supply. The principal charitable institution is the Mitford Hospital, established in 1858, by a bequest of a member of the Civil Service. The wards are well planned and lofty, and the building stands in grounds of its own, by the river-side. In 1881, the total number of in-door patients was 1634, and of out-door patients 19,138. A permanent endowment of £16,000 was left by the founder.

Dádar. — Town in Kachhi Province, Baluchistán; situated in lat. 29° 28′ N., and long. 67° 34′ E., on the Bolan river, about 5 miles east of the BOLAN PASS, and 37 north-west from Bágh; elevation above sea level, about 700 feet; population not exceeding 2000. Surrounded by bare and rocky hills, which render the heat in summer perhaps greater than that of any other place in the world in the same parallel of latitude. Dádar is supplied with excellent water from the river Bolan during a great part of the year. Wheat, cotton, cucumbers, and melons are grown in the neighbourhood of the town.

Dadhálya.—Estate in Máhi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. The area of the land under cultivation in 1881 was estimated at 5000 acres, the population at 3877, and the revenue at about £330. The Thákur is a tributary chief, paying annually £70 as *ghás-dána*, or forage for cattle, to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £61 as *kichri*, or supplies for troops, to the Rájá of Edar. He has enjoyed semi-independent power since the establishment of his family in Máhi Kántha. The family are Sesodia Rájputs, who originally came from Udaipur

(Oodeypore) in Rájputána. They hold no *sanad* authorising adoption; the rule of primogeniture is followed in regard to succession. The first Thákur entered the service of the chief of Edar with a body of horse, and obtained the gift of 48 villages, in 1674. At a later date, the Dadhálya chief, refusing to serve under the Márwár princes who assumed the Government of Edar, had his grant reduced to its present limits.

Dádri.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the Grand Trunk Road, 20 miles north-east of Bulandshahr, and 23 miles south-east of Delhi. Population (1881) 2421; police station, travellers' bungalow, post-office, village school, encamping ground for troops, weekly market. The railway station (East Indian Railway) is a mile and a half s.-w. of the village, and connected with it by a broad metalled road. Ruins of a fort built at the end of the 18th century by Dargáhi Singh, whose descendants held estates in the neighbourhood till 1857, when they joined the rebels. The police station is all that now remains of the fort. Two members of the family were hanged, and their possessions were confiscated. Colonel Greathed's column occupied Dádri on the 26th of September 1857, and, finding much property taken from Europeans, burned the neighbouring villages.

Dádú. — *Táluk* in the Sehwán Sub-division, Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 26° 29′ 30″ to 26° 56′ 30″ N.; long. 67° 22′ 30″ to 67° 57′ 45″ E.; area, 762 square miles; population (1881) 66,811, namely, 5101 Hindus, 59,181 Muhammadans, 2522 Sikhs, and 7 Christians, dwelling in 2 towns and 77 villages, and occupying 12,132 houses. The Sub-division contains 3 criminal courts, with 11 police stations, and a police force of 71 men.

Dádú. — Chief town in Dádú *táluk*, Karáchí District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 26° 43′ 30″ N.; long. 67° 49′ E. Population (1881) 2270, principally agriculturists. Municipal income (1880–81) £232; incidence of taxation per head of population, 2s. A subordinate civil court, post-office, staging bungalow, and railway station.

Daflápur (or *Jath*).—*Jágír* within the Political Agency of Satára, in Bombay Presidency, and really an integral part of the State of Jath, to which it will lapse on the demise of the three widows of the late chief. The founder of the Jath *jágír* was hereditary *pátel* of Daflapur village, and took his surname of Dafle therefrom. Lat. 17° 0′ N.; long. 75° 7′ E. In 1820, the British Government made an engagement with the ancestors of the present chief of Jath, confirming them in the estates they then held. In 1827, the Jath estate was attached by the Rájá of Satára to pay off the chief's debts, but, after their liquidation, it was restored in 1841. The British Government have more than once interfered to adjust the pecuniary affairs of the Jath *jágír;* and, in

consequence of numerous oppressions, were compelled in 1874 to assume the direct management on behalf of the holder. The estate of Daflápur consists of 6 detached villages in the Jath *jágír;* area, about 94 square miles; population (1881) 6006; gross revenue, £901. The land is generally poor, but fairly good in the eastern villages. Products, the staple millets (*bájra* and *joár*), cotton, wheat, gram, safflower, and *túr*. There are 3 schools in the estate with 56 pupils. The present ruler is the senior widow, Lakshmibái Dafle, Deshmukh, a Kshattriya (Maráthá) by caste.—*See* JATH.

Daflápur.—Chief town of the Daflápur estate, in Satára District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 0′ N., long. 75° 7′ E.; about 80 miles south-east of Satára, and 85 miles north-east of Belgaum.

Daga.—A creek in Irawadi Division, British Burma, which leaves the BASSEIN RIVER 3 or 4 miles from its northern mouth, in Henzada District, in lat. 17° 42′ 0″ N., and long. 95° 25′ 0″ E., and after a tortuous south-west course, rejoins it near Bassein town, lat. 16° 55′ 0″ N., and long. 94° 48′ 0″ E. The northern entrance has silted up, and is now completely closed by the embankment of the Bassein; the bed for about 8 miles down, as far as Ywathit, is dry during the hot season. In the rains the downward current is strong, but in the dry season the tide is felt as far as Thabye-hla at neaps, and fifteen miles farther at springs. The Daga is navigable by river steamers during the rains for 36 miles, from its southern outlet to the Min-mnaing creek; it is practicable all the year round for native craft as far as Kyún-pyaw, where the creek is from 200 to 300 feet wide, and 10 to 15 feet deep. A few miles below Kyún-pyaw is the Inyeh-gyí Lake, communicating with the Daga by a small channel.

Dagshái. — Hill cantonment in Simla District, Punjab; situated on a bare and treeless height 42 miles south of Simla, on the cart-road to Kalka, in lat. 30° 53′ 5″ N.; long. 77° 5′ 38″ E. Established in 1842; now regularly occupied by a European regiment. Population (1881) 3642; Hindus, 2129; Sikhs, 2; Muhammadans, 624; 'others,' nearly all European troops, 887; number of occupied houses, 612. The station, though usually healthy, suffered from an epidemic of cholera in 1872.

Da-gyaing.—River in Amherst District, Tenasserim, British Burma. Rises in the Dawna spur, and, flowing westward, joins the Hlaingbweh about half-way between the villages of Kazaing and Hlaingbweh. In the rains it brings down a considerable body of water, but a swift current and numerous rocks render it unnavigable.

Dáhánu. — Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 634 square miles; nnmber of villages, 209. Population (1881) 109,322, namely, 54,575 males and 54,747 females. Hindus number 97,676; Muhammadans, 1678; 'others,' 9968. Land revenue (1882-83)

£12,675. This Sub-division lies in the extreme north of the District; it has a picturesque aspect, most of the interior being occupied by forest-clad hills in small detached ranges of varying height. Towards the coast are broad flats, hardly above sea level, and seamed by tidal creeks. The climate of the interior is unhealthy, and though that of the coast is generally pleasant and equable, after the rains it becomes feverish. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 4 criminal courts, with 2 police stations (*thánás*), and a police force of 87 men.

Dáhánu.—Seaport town in the Dáhánu Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 58′ N., long. 72° 45′ E.; population (1881) 3525. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1878-79—exports, £14,520; imports, £1701. Small fort on the north bank of the Dáhánu river or creek.

Dahi.—Petty State under the Bhil Agency of Central India, and a guaranteed *thákurate* in Chakalda, tributary to Holkar, to whom it pays £30.

Dahira (*Dahida*).—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 3 villages. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £1000.

Dáin-hát.—Trading town and municipality in Bardwán District, Bengal. Situated on the banks of the Bhágirathi. Lat. 23° 36′ 24″ N., long. 88° 13′ 50″ E.; population (1881) 5789, namely, Hindus 5669, and Muhammadans 120; area of town site, 915 acres. Scene of a considerable annual fair. Manufactures, weaving and brass-work; trade in grain, tobacco, jute, salt, English cloth, cotton, etc. Gross municipal revenue (1881-82), £391; expenditure, £381; average rate of taxation, 1s. 4½d. per head of the population.

Dai-pai.—Lake in Okepo township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* DEH-PEH.

Dájal.—Town in Jáinpur *tahsíl*, Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 33′ 22″ N., long. 70° 25′ 21″ E.; population (1881) 5952, namely, 1922 Hindus, 4016 Muhammadans, and 14 Sikhs; number of occupied houses, 1101. First rose to importance under the rule of the Náhirs (*vide* DERA GHAZI KHAN DISTRICT), from whom it was wrested by Ghází Khán; subsequently fell into the hands of the Kháns of Khelát. Formerly a thriving town, trading with the country beyond the British frontier, but now in a decayed state, the traffic having taken different channels. Forms with the adjoining village of Naushahra a third-class municipality; revenue (1875-76) £284, or 10¾d. per head of population (6335) within municipal limits.

Dákátiá.—River of Bengal; rises in Hill Tipperah, and flows through the southern portion of Tipperah District, where it is joined by numerous hill streams. After taking a westerly course past Láksham, Chitosí, and Hajíganj, the Dákátiá sweeps suddenly round to the south-

ward 6½ miles east of Chándpur, and empties itself into the Meghná a little above the village of Ráipur, in Noákhálí District. A direct canal has recently been cut from Shikarhát, about 20 miles east of Chándpur, to Ráipur, thus cutting off a bend of about 40 miles.

Dakhineswar.—Village on the Húglí, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated a little north of Calcutta. Contains a powder magazine, and a few country houses of Europeans. Also noted for its twelve beautiful temples in honour of Siva, built on the river bank. Aided vernacular school here.

Dakor.—Town in the Thásrá Sub-division of Káira District, Bombay Presidency, and a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, Anand-Godhra branch; 16 miles north-east of the Anand railway station. Latitude, 22° 45′ N.; longitude, 73° 11′ E. Population (1881) 7771, namely, Hindus, 7401; Muhammadans, 354; Jains, 8; Pársís, 5; 'others,' 3; area of town site, 61 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82) £1719; rate of taxation, 4s. 9d. per head. Dákor is one of the chief places of pilgrimage in Western India. There are monthly meetings, but the largest gatherings take place about the full moon in October–November, when as many as 10,000 pilgrims assemble. Dispensary and post-office.

Dakshín (*Dakhin* or *Deccan*).—Tract of country in Southern India. —*See* DECCAN.

Dakshín Sháhbázpur.—A large low-lying island in the Meghná estuary, and now a Sub-division of Bákarganj District, Bengal, situated between 22° 16′ 45″ and 22° 51′ 30″ N. lat., and between 90° 39′ 30″ and 90° 57′ 15″ E. long. It was created a separate administrative Sub-division in 1845, and comprises the two *thánás* or police circles of Bhola and Barhan-ud-dín Haldár. Area, 615 square miles; 408 villages or towns, 21,209 occupied houses, and a population (1881) of 212,230, namely, males 113,880, and females 98,350; proportion of males in total population, 53·2 per cent. Muhammadans numbered 179,526; Hindus, 32,682; Christians, 7; and Buddhists, 15. Average density of population, 345 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·66; houses per square mile, 37·7; persons per village, 520; persons per house, 10. The cyclone of 31st October 1876 is said to have swept away almost the entire population of Daulat Khán, then the head-quarters town of the Sub-division. The island is a typical deltaic tract, formed out of the silt brought down by the Ganges and Brahmaputra. Its level is said to be higher than that of the adjacent delta or the Bákarganj mainland. The strong 'bore' of the Meghná at spring tides rushes upon the east of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, flooding all the water-courses and creeks. The north and eastern sides are being cut away by the river, many homesteads with their palm groves annually disappearing in the river; while large alluvial accretions are constantly

forming farther down the estuary, at the southern point of Dakshín Sháhbázpur.

Dala.—A suburb of Rangoon city, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the right or western bank of the Rangoon river. Formerly the Dala circle included Angyí, now a part of Hanthawadí District, and Pyapún, a portion of Thungwa; but these were transferred at the end of the last century. The town was founded in the 11th century, and was then called Dhalanágara. Population (1881) 6953.

Dala.—A creek in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, British Burma, which empties itself into the Rangoon river opposite Rangoon city. On the west side of its mouth are dockyards, and to the east, timber yards and steam sawmills. In the dry season it is navigable for a few miles only, but during the rains boats can traverse its entire length.

Dala-nwun.—River in Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Rises in the eastern spurs of the Pegu Yomas, and, flowing south-east, falls into the Sittaung a few miles below Thayet-thamein. Navigable by large boats as far as Thungwa.

Dalat (*Dhalet*).—River in Kyaukh-pyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma, rising in the main range, and falling into the sea at Combermere Bay. It is navigable as far as Dalet (sometimes called Talak) village, 25 miles from its mouth. In its upper reaches the stream is a mountain torrent, only passable by small canoes.

Dalgomá.—Village in Goálpárá District, Assam, at which a large fair is held annually in January, on the anniversary of the death of a former high priest of the temple. Lat. 26° 6′ N., long. 90° 49′ E. A revenue court (*zamíndári kachári*) of the Rájá of Bijni, the principal landowner of the District, is situated in this village.

Dalhousie.—Municipal town, cantonment, and hill sanitarium, attached to Patháinkot *tahsíl*, Gurdáspur District, Punjab, but lying outside the limits of the main District. Lat. 32° 31′ 45″ N., long. 76° 0′ 15″ E. The Station occupies the summits and upper slopes of three mountain peaks in the main Himálayan range east of the Rávi river; distant from Patháinkot 51 miles north-west, from Gurdáspur 74 miles; elevation above the sea, 7687 feet. To the east the granite peak of Dáin Kúnd, clothed with dark pine forests, and capped with snow even during part of summer, towers to a height of 9000 feet; while beyond, again, the peaks of the Dháola Dhar, covered with perpetual winter, shut in the Kángra valley and close the view in that direction. The scenery may compare favourably with that of any mountain station in the Himálayan range. The hills consist of rugged granite, and the houses are perched on a few gentler slopes among the declivities; most of the houses are double-storied. The first project for the formation of a sanitarium at this spot originated with Colonel Napier, now Lord

Napier of Magdala, in 1851. In the following year the British Government purchased the site from the Rájá of Chamba, and the new station was marked off in 1854. No systematic occupation, however, took place until 1860. In that year, Dalhousie was attached to the District of Gurdáspur; the road from the plains was widened, and building operations commenced on a large scale. Troops were stationed in the Balún barracks in 1868, and the sanitarium rapidly acquired reputation as a fashionable resort. A military camel road now leads direct to the cantonment from below Dimiria; and there is a good water-supply for the troops. The town now contains a court-house, branch treasury, police-station, post-office, dispensary, church, and several hotels. A European firm have built a brewery. The sanitary arrangements are still somewhat imperfect. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £829; expenditure, £641. The population fluctuates greatly, according to the season of the year. At the time the Census was taken (February 1881), the population, including Balún cantonments, was returned at 1610, namely, of 1009 Hindus, 397 Muhammadans, 8 Sikhs, and 196 'others;' and this may be considered as the permanent resident population, the visitors from the plains not arriving till later in the year.

Dálingkot (or *Kalimpong*).—A hilly tract situated east of the Tístá, west of the Ne-chu and De-chu rivers, and south of Independent Sikkim. It was acquired as the result of the Bhután campaign of 1864, and now forms a part of DARJILING DISTRICT, Bengal. The principal village in it is Kálimpong, situated at an elevation of 3916 feet, and the tract has now taken the name of Kálimpong. The Sub-division has recently been divided into three main tracts—(1) A tract set apart for native cultivators, of which 30,000 acres of cultivated land have been surveyed and settled with the occupiers on ten-year leases. (2) A forest and cinchona reserve, covering 140,433 acres. (3) Tea cultivation, 9000 acres. In the lower ranges, a small area has been reserved as a sanitarium for the tea-planters of the Dwárs. Kálimpong village is on the trade route across the Jelep pass into Tibet. It has a *bázar* of about a dozen shops, mostly branch shops of Dárjíling traders, and sub-divisional offices. The construction of a bridge across the Tístá has rendered the tract accessible from the west at all seasons of the year, and the population is rapidly increasing. In 1872, the tract contained only 3526 inhabitants; by 1881, the population had risen to 12,683, namely, Hindus, 6475; Buddhists, 6153; Muhammadans, 9; Christians, 44; and 'others,' 2. Area, 486 square miles; number of villages, 32; and occupied houses, 2565.

Dalli.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces Population (1881) 3431, namely, males 1766, and females 1665, chiefly Gonds, residing in 17 small villages and 688 houses; area,

52 square miles, of which only 5 are rudely cultivated. The Great Eastern Road runs across Dalli, through the Mundipár Pass, the hills round which furnish an abundant supply of bamboos. The chief is a Gond. Principal village, Dalli, situated in lat. 21° 5′ 30″ N., long. 80° 16′ E.

Dalmá.—The principal hill in the mountain range of the same name in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; height, 3407 feet. It has been described as the 'rival of Párasnáth;' but it lacks the bold precipices and commanding peaks of that hill, and is merely a long rolling ridge rising gradually to its highest point. Its slopes are covered with dense forest, but are accessible to men and beasts of burden. The chief aboriginal tribes living on Dalmá Hill are the Kharriás and Paháriás.

Dálmau.—*Tahsíl* of Rái Bareli District, Oudh, consisting of the *parganás* of Dálmau, Sareni, and Khiron. Area (1881) 479 square miles. Population (1881) 262,499, namely, males 128,471, and females 134,028. Hindus numbered 250,864; Muhammadans, 11,588; and 'others,' 47. Total Government land revenue, £39,373, being at the rate of 2s. 4¼d. per acre. Of the 584 villages in the *tahsíl*, 440 are held under *talúkdárí* tenure, 63 are *zamíndárí*, 56 *pattidárí*, and 26 rent free.

Dálmau.—*Parganá* of Dálmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Rái Bareli *parganá*; on the east by Salon; on the south by Fatehpur District, the Ganges marking the border line; and on the west by Khíron and Sareni *parganás*. Originally held by the Bhars till their extirpation by Ibráhím Sharki of Jaunpur, but first created a *parganá* by Akbar. The Bais were almost the sole proprietors till the forfeiture of the great estate of Rájá Beni Madhu, and its distribution among other proprietors. A fertile tract, with an area of 253 square miles, of which 121 are cultivated. Population (1881) 139,184, namely, 68,320 males and 70,864 females; average density, 573 persons per square mile. Ten market villages, of which LALGANJ is the most important. Main imports—rice and sugar from Faizábád (Fyzábád), and cotton from Fatehpur; extensive trade in cattle. Saltpetre was formerly manufactured in considerable quantities, but the industry now exists on a small scale in only two villages. Two large annual fairs, each attended by about 50,000 persons, are held in the *parganá*.

Dálmau.—Town and head-quarters of Dálmau *tahsíl* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; on the right bank of the Ganges, 16 miles south of Rái Bareli town, and 14 miles north of Fatehpur. Lat. 26° 3′ 45″ N., long. 81° 4′ 20″ E. The town is said to have been founded about 1500 years ago by a brother of the Rájá of Kanauj. It was for long in the possession of the Bhars, and the surrounding country was the scene of a protracted struggle maintained by that tribe against the encroachments

of the Muhammadans. About 1400 A.D., the Bhars were almost annihilated by Sultán Ibráhím Sharki. Several Muhammadan mosques and tombs, in various stages of decay, and the ruins of the ancient Bhar fortress, attest the bygone importance of the town. During the last century it has steadily declined. Its population in 1881 consisted of 4443 Hindus and 924 Muhammadans; total, 5367, namely, males 2725, and females 2642; area of town site, 1029 acres. The principal buildings are several mosques, a magnificent Hindu temple dedicated to Mahádeo, and a *sárái* or rest-house. A metalled road from the Ganges to Lucknow, *viâ* Rái Bareli, passes through the centre of the town, which is the seat of a *tahsíldár* exercising the powers of a magistrate, and also of an inspector of police. The *munsif's* court exercises jurisdiction over the whole of the Dálmau *tahsíl*, and the *parganá* of Salon. Three bi-weekly markets, police station, post-office, Government Anglo-vernacular school, and branch dispensary. Large annual fair, attended by from 50,000 to 60,000 persons, is held on the last day of Kártik, at which a considerable trade is carried on.

Dálmí.—Site of remarkable Hindu ruins on the Subarnárekhá river, Mánbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 4′ N., long. 86° 4′ E. They comprise an old fort, with the remains of curious temples, dedicated both to the Sivaite and Vishnuvite objects of worship. There are some indications that the Bráhmans who built and used these temples were preceded by Buddhists.

Daltonganj.—Administrative head-quarters of Palámau Sub-division, Lohárdagá District, Bengal. Prettily situated on the North Koel river, opposite the old town of Sháhpur. Lat. 24° 2′ 15″ N., long. 84° 6′ 40″ E. A brisk local trade is springing up. The town contains a court-house, and the usual sub-divisional offices, a *munsifi*, and the head-quarters of a divisional forest officer. Population (1881) 7440, namely, Hindus, 6025; Muhammadans, 1286; and 'others,' 129. Area of town site, 3374 acres. Municipal income (1881–82), £218; expenditure, £219. The town is named after Colonel Dalton, late Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur.

Daltonganj Coal-field.—The name given to an area of 200 square miles in the valleys of the Koel and Amánat rivers. The civil station of Daltonganj lies just beyond its southern border. Of the whole field, only about 30 square miles are considered by the geological surveyors to be important as coal-bearing tracts. The coal-bearing area has not been ascertained with any certainty, but mining engineers who have recently inspected the tract are of opinion that it contains a great deal more coal than set down in the estimate of the Geological Survey.

Damalcherri.—Pass in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; by which the Maráthá chief Sivají made his first descent (1676) upon the

Karnatic ; and here, in 1740, Dost Alí the Nawáb was killed in battle with the Maráthás. Latitude 13° 25′ 40″ N., longitude 79° 5′ E. During the campaigns of 1780–82, it formed the main route for the supplies of Haidar Alí's troops when invading the Karnatic.

Damán (*the 'skirt' of the hills*).—A tract of upland in the Punjab, lying between 28° 40′ and 33° 20′ N. lat., and between 69° 30′ and 71° 20′ E. long., comprising the country lying at the eastern foot of the Suláimán mountains, and the high right bank of the Indus in Derá Ismáil Khán District. Naturally bare and devoid of vegetation, it derives fertility in places from the waters of hill torrents, particularly the Gumal, Tánk Zaní, Sohel, and Wahoa.

Damán.—A Portuguese town and Settlement in the Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency ; situated about 100 miles north of Bombay. Including the *parganá* of Nagar Havili, it contains an area of 82 square miles, with a total population (1881), including absentees and temporary residents, of 49,084 persons. The Settlement of Damán is bounded north by the river Bhagwán, east by British territory, south by the Kalem river, and west by the Gulf of Cambay. Damán town is situated in latitude 22° 25′ N., longitude 72° 53′ E.

The Settlement is composed of two portions, in Damán proper, namely, *parganá* Naer or *Damán Grande*, and *parganá* Calana Pavori or *Damán Pequeno*, and the detached *parganá* of Nagar Havili, separated from it by a narrow strip of British territory, 5 to 7 miles in width, and intersected by the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The town of Damán was sacked by the Portuguese in 1531, rebuilt by the natives, and retaken in 1558 by the Portuguese, who made it one of their permanent establishments in India. They converted the mosque into a church, and have since built eight other places of worship. The portion of Damán proper contains an area of 22 square miles, and 29 villages, with a population of 21,622 souls ; it lies at the entrance of the Gulf of Cambay, and is divided by the river Damán-Gangá into the two separate tracts known as *Damán Grande* (Great Damán) and *Damán Piqueno* (Little Damán). The first, on the south, is contiguous to the British District of Thána, while the other lies towards the north and borders on Surat District. This portion of the Settlement was conquered from Bofata on the 2nd of February 1559, by the Portuguese under Dom Constantino de Braganza. The *parganá* of Nagar Havili, situated towards the east, has an area of 60 square miles, with a population (1881) of 27,462 persons, and is likewise sub-divided into two parts, called Eteli Pati and Upeli Pati, containing respectively 22 and 50 villages. It was ceded to the Portuguese by the Maráthás, in indemnification for piratical acts committed against a ship carrying a flag of the former nation, in accordance with the treaty signed at Poona on 6th of January 1780.

Physical Aspects.—The principal rivers are—(1) the Bhagwán, forming the northern boundary of the Settlement; (2) the Kalem, running along the southern boundary; and (3) the Sandalkhál or Damán-Gangá (Border Ganges), a deep navigable stream, rising in the Gháts about 40 miles east of Damán proper. All these fall into the Gulf of Cambay. The Damán-Gangá has a bar at its mouth—dry at the lowest ebb tides, but with 18 to 20 feet of water at high tides. Outside this bar is a roadstead, where vessels of 300 to 400 tons may ride at anchor, and discharge cargo. Damán has long enjoyed a high celebrity for its docks and shipbuilding yards, due chiefly to the excellent teak with which the country is stocked. The climate of the place is generally healthy throughout the year. The Settlement has no minerals, but possesses stately forests in the *parganá* of Nagar Havili, whose total value is estimated at about £444,000. About two-thirds of these forests consist of teak (Tectona grandis); the other timber-trees include —*sadura* (Pentaptera arjuna), *khayer* (Acacia catechu), *sissu* (Dalbergia sissoo), *lál kháyer* (Acacia sundra), *tanas* (Dalbergia ujjainensis), *siwana* (Gmelina arborea), *dambora* (Conocarpus latifolius), *hedu* (Nauclea cordifolia), *asan* (Briedelia spinosa), *timburni* (Diospyros montana), and *bábúl* (Acacia arabica). The forests are not conserved, and the extent of land covered by each kind of timber has not yet been precisely determined.

Agriculture.—The soil is moist and fertile, especially in the *parganá* of Nagar Havili. Principal crops — rice, wheat, the inferior cereals common to Gujarát, and tobacco. Despite the facility of cultivation, only one-twentieth part of the territory is under tillage. In the *parganá* of Nagar Havili, the greater part of the soil is the property of Government, from whom the cultivators hold their tenures direct. A tax is levied on all lands, whether alienated or the property of the State. There is, however, no fixed rate of assessment, as the tax is regulated by a general estimate of the productiveness of each village. The total revenue thus obtained amounts to about £800.

Trade, etc.—Before the decline of the Portuguese power in the East, Damán carried on an extensive commerce, especially with the eastern coast of Africa, to which the cotton fabrics made in Gujarát were largely exported in vessels carrying the Portuguese flag. From 1817 to 1837, there was a flourishing trade with China in opium imported from Kaṛáchí (Kurrachee). But since the conquest of Sind by the British, the transport of opium has been prohibited, and thus Damán has been deprived of its chief source of wealth. In old days, Damán was noted for its weaving and dyeing. The former industry is still carried on to a limited extent, chiefly by the wives of Musalmán *khalásis* or sailors, while the latter is almost extinct. The piece-goods, made from a mixture of English and country twist, are of a quality and pattern worn only by

the natives of Goa, Mozambique, and Diu, to which places they are exported. Mats and baskets of *khajúri* and bamboo are manufactured on a large scale. A noteworthy feature in connection with the industrial occupations of the place is its deep-sea fishing, giving employment to 150 vessels, each with a crew of about 30 *khandis*. They make for the coast of Káthiáwár, near Diu, where they remain for some months, and return laden with salted fish cured on board.

Population.—The total population of the Settlement in 1881, including absentees and temporary residents, was 48,084, of whom 27,462 (almost entirely Hindus) inhabit the *parganá* of Nagar Havili. According to the Census of 1850, the population of Damán proper was returned at 33,559—it is now said to be reduced to 21,622. In the total population the number of Christians is returned at 1615, of whom 15 are Europeans. The total number of houses amounts to 10,202; but only a very few are of any size or pretensions. The native Christians adopt the European costume. Some of the women dress themselves after the present European fashion, while others follow the old style once prevalent in Portugal and Spain, viz. a petticoat and mantle.

Administration.—The territory of Damán forms, for administrative purposes, a single District, and has a municipal chamber or corporation. It is ruled by a Governor invested with both civil and military functions, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is superintended by a judge, with an establishment composed of a delegate of the attorney-general, and two or three clerks. The total revenues of Damán in 1873–74 amounted to £7960, 10s., of which the larger portion was derived from the *parganá* of Nagar Havili. The chief sources of revenue are land-tax, forests, *abkári* or excise, and customs duties. The expenditure in the same year was £7880, 4s. The police force consisted, in 1874, of 194 officers and men.

The Settlement of Damán has two forts, situated on either side of the river Damán-Gangá. The former is almost a square in shape, and built of stone. It contains, besides the ruins of the old monastic establishments, the Governor's palace, together with the buildings appertaining to it, military barracks, hospital, municipal office, court-house, jail, two modern churches, and numerous private residences. On the land side this fort is protected by a ditch crossed by a draw-bridge, while at its north-west angle extends the principal bastion, which commands the entrance to the harbour. It is occupied by the Governor and his staff, the military establishments, officers connected with the Government, and a few private individuals; all are Christians. The smaller fort, which is a more recent structure, is placed by the Portuguese under the patronage of St. Jerome. Its form is that of an irregular quadrilateral, enclosed by a wall somewhat higher than that of

the other fort. The principal buildings within it are a church, a parochial house, and a mortuary chapel surrounded by a cemetery. Both the forts have brass and iron cannon on the walls, some of which are mounted, and others either attached to old carriages or lying on the ground.

Dáman-i-Koh.—A tract of hilly country, literally 'Skirts of the hills,' in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal, and extending over portions of Dumká, Rájmahál, Pakaur, and Godda Sub-districts. Area, 1366 square miles, which was marked off by a ring fence in 1832. Number of villages, 2385; occupied houses, 60,052. The total population at the time of the Census of 1881 was 353,413, of whom 210,932 were Santáls, and 49,895 Kols and other aboriginal tribes, still professing their primitive faith. The balance of the population are also aboriginal by race, although most of them have adopted some form of Hinduism, and a few are converts to Muhammadanism and Christianity. The first Census in 1872 was taken in this tract by the headman of each village, by means of knotted strings of three colours, representing the males, females, and children separately. Each individual was 'knotted off,' while in some villages an independent committee kept a reckoning by seeds or small pieces of gravel, arranged in three sets upon the ground. The women and children apprehended some terrible natural visitation in consequence of this numbering of the people. In 1881, agitators seized the opportunity afforded by the Census for a tribal demonstration. Objection was made to the numbering of the houses and of the people. The circumstance that the final enumeration was to be taken by night gave rise to rumours that Government meditated some widespread policy of violence, and the hillmen worked themselves up into a state of great excitement. It was found necessary to dispense with the nocturnal enumeration, and by a show of force in marching detachments of troops through the Santál country, the Census was effected without disturbance.

The Dáman-i-Koh is the property of Government, having been 'resumed' from the *zamíndárs* who held it between 1780 and 1839, when the last formal resumption was effected. It has been kept exclusively for the hill tribes, who were first found in it, and for the Santáls and other cognate primitive races who began to immigrate into it about 1820. Foreigners are not allowed to reside in this tract without special permission.

Dam-Dama.—Sub-division and cantonment, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal.—*See* DUM-DUM.

Dam-ma-tha.—A small town on the Gyaing river, in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. To the south is an extensive outcrop of limestone rocks covered with dense forest, and pierced by a large cave, containing images of Buddha. These rocks

terminate immediately below the village in an overhanging cliff, crowned by a pagoda; and between this and the village is the Government rest-house, with a flight of steps down to the Gyaing river. The massive and rugged Zweh-ka-bin limestone ridge, known as the 'Duke of York's Nose,' is situated to the north of Dam-ma-tha.

Dámodar.—A river of Bengal; rises in the Chutiá Nágpur watershed, and, after a south-easterly course of about 350 miles, falls into the Húglí just above the ill-famed 'JAMES AND MARY SANDS,' a shoal which it has helped to deposit at its mouth. The junction is in lat. 22° 17′ N., long. 88° 7′ 30″ E. Together with its tributaries, it forms the great line of drainage of the country stretching north-west from Calcutta to the fringe of the plateau of Central India. That plateau throws off to the eastward a confused mass of spurs and outliers, which in the Districts of Hazáribágh and Lohárdagá form a watershed, in the 84th degree of east longitude and 23rd of north latitude, of much, although inadequately recognised, significance in the hydrography of Bengal. The ridges culminate near Lohárdagá town in a well-defined barrier, with peaks up to 3476 feet. Two important river systems here take their rise in close proximity, and then diverge on widely-separated routes. The drainage from the north-western slopes flows northwards into the Son (Soane), the great river of Behar, which joins the Ganges between Patná and Baxár, 500 miles above the spot where the waters from the eastern slopes, as represented by the southerly flowing Dámodar, enter the Húglí. The Hazáribágh or Lohárdagá watershed, therefore, forms the western apex of a vast triangle, with the Son as its north-eastern, and the Dámodar as its south-eastern sides, resting upon the Ganges as its eastern base. The sources of the Dámodar are a two-pronged fork, approximately in 23° 35′ to 24° N. lat., and 84° 40′ to 84° 55′ E. long.,—the southern one, the true source, being in the Tori *parganá* of Lohárdagá District; the northern one, the Garhi, in the north-west corner of Hazáribágh District. After a course of about 26 miles as wild mountain streams, the two prongs unite just within the western boundary of Hazáribágh; and the combined river flows through that District almost due east for 93 miles, receiving the Kunar, Jamuniá, and other affluents from the watershed on the north-west. It continues its course still eastward through Mánbhúm, and receives its chief tributary, the Barákhar, also from the north, at the point where it leaves that District and touches Bardwán. A little lower down, the united stream becomes navigable, and assumes the dignity of an important river. At the point of junction it turns to the south-east, separating the Ráníganj Sub-division of Bardwán from Bánkurá; next entering Bardwán District, it continues south-east to a little beyond Bardwán town; then turns sharp to the right and flows almost due south for the remainder of its course through Bardwán and Húglí

Districts. Shortly before entering the latter, it assumes the deltaic type, and instead of receiving affluents, throws off distributaries, the best known being the Káná *nadí*, which branches from the parent stream at Sálimábád in Bardwán District, and finds its way as the Kunti *nadí* into the Húglí near the village of Nawá Sarái. The main stream formerly debouched into the Húglí more directly and higher up than at present; its old mouth being now marked by the insignificant watercourse known as the Kánsoná *khal*. The Dámodar thus exhibits in its comparatively short course the two great features of an Indian river. In the earlier part of its career it has a rapid flow, and brings down large quantities of silt. At the point of junction of the two prongs on the western border of Hazáribágh District, the united stream starts with an elevation of 1326 feet above sea-level. In its course of 93 miles through Hazáribágh, its fall averages 8 feet per mile (total, 744 feet), and it leaves the District with an elevation of only 582 feet to be distributed over its remaining course of about 250 miles. The fall continues rapidly through Mánbhúm and north-western Bardwán, in the latter of which Districts the Dámodar deposits large and shifting sandbanks. In South Bardwán and Húglí Districts it declines into a sluggish deltaic channel, and deposits the remainder of its silt at its point of junction with the Húglí river, opposite Faltá. The Rúpnáráyan, a southern congener of the Dámodar, from nearly the same watershed, also falls into the Húglí, a few miles lower down. Both streams enter the great river at a sharp angle from the west, and the 'James and Mary Sands' have been thrown up between their mouths. These sands are formed from the silt brought down by the Húglí and Dámodar; the deposit of the suspended matter at this spot being caused by the freshets of the Rúpnáráyán, which dam up the Húglí by backwaters, thus checking its current and forcing it to drop its burden. During the dry season, the Dámodar is only navigable as far as Ampta in Howrah District—about 25 miles from its mouth—by native boats of 10 tons burthen at neap, and of 20 tons at spring tides. In the rainy season it is navigable to near its point of junction with the Barákhar, in the north-western extremity of Bardwán District. A flotilla of 200 to 300 boats (*páutás*), from 20 to 30 tons, built broad with strong transverse timbers to resist the strain caused by frequent grounding on sandbanks, brings down yearly about 40,000 tons of coal from the Ráníganj mines, to depôts at Maheshrekha in Howrah District, whence Calcutta is reached *viâ* the Ulúbáriá Canal and the Húglí. In seasons of abundant and evenly-distributed rainfall, each boat can make two or three trips between June and October. The Dámodar is subject to sudden freshets, which used to desolate the surrounding country in Bardwán District. In 1770, a flood almost totally destroyed Bardwán town, ruined the whole line of embankments, and caused a

severe local famine. In 1823, and again in 1855, inundations swept away the river-side villages, and the terror of a similar calamity has deterred the people from building on many of the deserted sites. 'Picture to yourself,' writes the *Calcutta Monthly Journal* in 1823, 'a flat country completely under water, running with a force apparently irresistible, and carrying with it dead bodies, roofs of houses, palanquins, and wreck of every description!' The floods lasted for three days, during which the fortunate owners of brick tenements camped on their roofs. The old landmarks of the peasants' holdings were swept away, and many years of bankruptcy and litigation ensued. Since the construction of the railway, which for a space follows the course of the Dámodar, and the improvement of the river embankments, which Government took into its own hands after the flood of 1855, calamities on this scale have been unknown. The Dámodar embankment now protects the country northwards of the river; but this embankment has had the effect of throwing the spill of the river over the unprotected country on the right bank, attended with serious damage to crops, and laying waste a large tract of formerly fertile land. Towards the south, where the Dámodar and the RUPNARAYAN rivers converge upon the HUGLI, there is a great tract of eight square miles subject to inundations from eight to eighteen feet in depth. The engineering difficulties incident to this flooded region formed one of the arguments for taking the direct railway from Calcutta to Bombay round by the Barákhar route, instead of by the direct line across Midnapur District.

Damoh.—District in the Jabalpur Division of the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 10′ and 23° 30′ N. lat., and 79° 5′ and 80° E. long. Bounded on the north by Bundelkhand; on the east by Jabalpur (Jubbulpore); on the south by Narsinghpur; and on the west by Ságar (Saugor). Population in 1881, 312,957 souls; area, 2799 square miles. The administrative headquarters of the District are at DAMOH, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—The contour of the District is irregular, and in parts ill-defined. To the south, a lofty range of sandstone hills separates Damoh from Narsinghpur and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and at places sends forth spurs and ridges into the plain below. But these elevations are as a rule insignificant in size, and add but little beauty to the landscape. On the east rise the Bhondlá hills, which run eastwards till they are lost in the loftier range of the Bhánrer mountains. The Vindhyáchál hills, which stretch for a considerable distance along the western boundary, though of no great height, form the most picturesque feature of the District—from time to time opening out into broad uplands, thickly wooded with low jungle. In this part of Damoh the overlying trap of the Ságar plateau is met with. From these ranges, which more or less distinctly mark it off on three sides, Damoh

extends in a vast table-land, sloping gradually towards the north, till an abrupt dip in the surface occurs, beyond which the plains of Bundelkhand may be seen stretching far away into the distant horizon. Except on the south and east, where the offshoots from the surrounding hills and patches of jungle break up the country, the District consists, therefore, of open plains of varying degrees of fertility, interspersed with low ranges and isolated heights. The richest tracts lie in the centre. The gentle declivity of the surface, and the porous character of the prevailing sandstone formation, render the drainage excellent. All the streams flow from south to north. The Sonár and the Bairmá, the two principal rivers, traverse the entire length of the District, receiving in their progress the waters of the Beas (Biás), Koprá, Gurayyá, and smaller tributaries, rolling with a rapid stream towards the northern boundary of Damoh. As it approaches the frontier, the Sonár takes a bend eastwards, and joins the Bairmá ; the united stream then leaves Damoh behind it, and, after receiving the Ken, falls into the Jumna. Little use has yet been made of any of the rivers for irrigation, though in many places they offer great facilities for the purpose.

History. — In early times, the Chandel Rájputs of Mahobá in Bundelkhand administered the present Districts of Ságar and Damoh by means of a deputy posted at Balihrí, in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). Excepting a few temples known as *marhs*, of rude architecture, and entirely destitute of inscriptions, the Chandels have left no monuments of their rule. On the decay of the Chandelí Ráj, about the end of the 11th century, the greater part of Damoh became dependent upon the Gond power, which had its seat at Khatolá, in Bundelkhand, until its subversion about 1500 by the notorious Bundelá chief, Rájá Barsingh Deva. The Muhammadan power made itself felt in Damoh from a very early period. A Persian inscription, formerly legible on the principal gateway of the town of Damoh, bore the date 775 A.H. (1373 A.D.). Two hundred years, however, elapsed from this time before the Muhammadans actually occupied the District. Their invasion met with little opposition, except at Narsinghgarh, where the Gonds made a show of resistance to Sháh Taiyab, the commander of the Imperial forces. During the supremacy of the Muhammadans, Damoh, Narsinghgarh (or as they called it, Nasratgarh), and Lakhroní were the principal towns ; and their presence may still be traced in the ruins of forts, tombs, and mosques. The Muhammadan element in the population is now insignificant both in numbers and in position ; and though the Kázís of Narsinghgarh claim descent from Sháh Taiyab, they have fallen so low that they are glad to take service as messengers and process-servers. When the Mughal Empire began to give way before the rising Maráthá power, the Muhammadans fast lost their hold over their outlying dependencies ; and Chhatar Sál, the powerful

Rájá of Panna, took the opportunity to annex Ságar and Damoh. The Gonds and other wild tribes, however, who held the more mountainous regions in the south and east of Damoh, never acknowledged his authority. In his time was built the fort of HATTA. In the year 1733, Rájá Chhatar Sál was forced to solicit the assistance of Báji Ráo Peshwá to repel an invasion of the Nawáb of Farukhábád from the north. To repay the service then rendered, Rájá Chhatar Sál consented to the cession called the *tethrá*, by which all his territory was divided into three equal parts—one for each of his two sons, and the remaining third for the Peshwá, whom he formally adopted. In this distribution, a part of Damoh was allotted to each of the three; but no long time elapsed before the Maráthás wrested the whole of the District from the Bundelás. From this period, Damoh continued subordinate to the Maráthá governors at Ságar (Saugor), until by the treaty of 1818 it was made over to the British. Under the plundering revenue system of the Maráthás, wide tracts relapsed into jungle, and the cultivating classes sank into a state of hopeless poverty. Half a century of British administration has now brought about a new era of prosperity for Damoh. Our earlier land settlements, based on the Maráthá records, pressed heavily on the agricultural population; but this error has been rectified, and the District now enjoys a light assessment and fixed tenures. The result has already manifested itself in the spread of cultivation, and in the high market value of land, in some cases exceeding thirty years' purchase. The official records of Damoh were destroyed in the disturbances of 1857.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Damoh at 262,641; and a more careful Census in 1872 at 269,642. The last Census, in 1881, returned the population of the District, covering the same area as in 1872, at 312,957, showing an increase of 43,315, or 16 per cent., in the nine years. This increase is to a considerable extent due to immigration caused by the famine of 1877, when a large number of refugees from the Native States to the north settled down permanently in the District; and also to the importation of labour for the new road from Damoh to Jabalpur. The results exhibited by the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows: Area of District, 2799 square miles, with 2 towns and 1144 villages; number of houses, 73,602, of which 70,276 were occupied and 3326 unoccupied. Total population, 312,957, namely, 162,570 males and 150,387 females. Average density, 112 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 0·41; persons per town or village, 272; houses per square mile, 25·11; persons per occupied house, 4·45. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 288,894; Jains, 6665; Kabírpanthís, 2423; Satnámís, 137; Muhammadans, 9384; Christians, 33; and tribes professing aboriginal religions, 5421.

Of the Hindus, the high castes, represented by the Bráhmans and Rájputs, number 32,580. Of the lower castes, the best agriculturists are the Kúrmís, who are said to have emigrated from the Doáb of the Ganges and Jumna into the Central Provinces over two centuries ago. In 1881 they numbered 23,635 in Damoh District, being found mostly in the rich black-soil tracts. They are a peaceable class, and have always been remarkable for their loyalty to the ruling power. They are very tenacious of their ancestral holdings, and seldom alienate their landed rights, except under the greatest pressure. Scarcely inferior to the Kúrmís as agriculturists are the Lodhís, who form the most numerous caste in the District (36,897 in number in 1881); they are descendants of immigrants from Bundelkhand nearly three centuries ago. They differ greatly from the Kúrmís in temperament, being turbulent, revengeful, and always ready to join in any disturbance. They make good soldiers, and are generally excellent sportsmen. The aboriginal tribe of Gonds (33,499 in number) and Ahírs (15,796) appear in this part of the country to have entirely lost their nationality, and to have become completely Hinduized. They are the only tribes which inhabit the wooded and hilly portions of the District, and are generally poor, of unsettled habits, and indifferent agriculturists. In the plains they are principally employed as farm labourers. The Kachhís (14,848 in number) are a superior class of cultivators akin to the Kúrmís, and raise good crops of sugar-cane and garden produce. They are also field labourers. The lowest castes of Hindus include Chamárs (35,976), who are workers in leather, labourers, etc.; Chandáls (7558), weavers, field labourers, and village watchmen; and Dhimáls (10,239), fishermen, water-carriers, domestic servants, etc. The Muhammadan element amounts to only 3 per cent. of the population, and is composed mainly of the lower orders, who are employed as cotton carders, weavers, etc. They belong, almost without exception, to the Sunní sect.

Division into Town and Country.—There are only two towns in Damoh District with a population exceeding 5000—viz. DAMOH, the District headquarters (population in 1881, 8665), and HATTA (6325), and these form the only municipalities. Of the 1146 villages and towns, 661 contained in 1881 less than two hundred inhabitants; 349 had from two to five hundred; 97 from five hundred to a thousand; 29 from one to two thousand; 6 from two to three thousand; 2 from three to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six main divisions:—Class I. Professional, including civil and military and learned professions, 3245; II. Domestic servants, lodging-house keepers, etc., 2023; III. Commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 2958; IV. Agricultural, including

cultivators, gardeners, and sheep and cattle tenders, 61,208; V. Industrial class, including manufacturers, artisans, etc., 25,818; VI. Indefinite and non-productive, including ordinary labourers and male children, 67,318.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 2799 square miles, only 810 square miles were cultivated in 1881–82, and of the portion lying waste, 684 square miles were returned as cultivable. Only 1147 acres were irrigated—entirely by private enterprise. Wheat constitutes the principal crop, being grown in 1881–82 on 244,583 acres, while 199,724 acres were devoted to other food-grains. Rice and oil-seeds form the only other important produce. The cultivation of cotton is small, and the produce is used principally for local consumption. The average rent of land suited for wheat is 5s. per acre; for inferior grain, 3s.; for rice, 2s. 9d.; and for oil-seeds, 3s. The produce per acre averages —wheat, 452 lbs.; inferior grains, 305; rice, 377; and oil-seeds, 281 lbs. The average prices in 1881 per cwt. were—wheat, 3s. 9d.; rice, 6s. 7d.; linseed, 5s. 9d.; and inferior food-grains, 2s. 9d. The usual wages for skilled labour amounted to 1s. per diem; for unskilled labour, from 3d. to 6d. The total agricultural adult population, including agricultural labourers, in 1881 was 89,359, or 28·55 per cent. of the total District population. Total assessed area, 1903 square miles, paying a total revenue to Government of £28,379, or an average of 1s. per acre of cultivated, and 7½d. per acre of cultivable land. The total amount of rent, including cesses, paid by the cultivators to the landlords, was £66,769, or an average of 2s. 6d. per acre. Average area of cultivable and cultivated land per head of the agricultural population, 11 acres. The best agriculturists are the Kúrmís, who are said to have immigrated from the Doáb about 250 years ago. The circumstance that their women engage in field-work equally with the men contributes in no slight degree to their success. A most peaceable race, and remarkable for their loyalty to the ruling power, the Kúrmís are exceedingly tenacious of their ancestral holdings, and will hardly alienate their rights in land under the greatest pressure. The Lodhís, who rank next as agriculturists, made their way into the District about three centuries ago. Often turbulent and revengeful, they form good soldiers, and are generally excellent sportsmen. Both Kúrmís and Lodhís make no distinction between a mistress and a wife, provided the former is of the same caste as her partner, or, what is more respectable still, the widow of an elder brother or cousin. The children born from such connections inherit property, of whatever kind, equally with those born of regularly-married wives. In the wooded and hilly portions of Damoh, many Gonds pursue agriculture after a humble fashion; in the plains they are principally employed as farm servants. Of the 71 villages held by Muhammadans, 63 are in possession of one family,

who obtained a whole *táluk* in proprietary right as a reward for loyal services rendered during the Mutiny.

Commerce and Trade.—The chief trade of the District is conducted at the annual fairs held at Kundalpur and Bándakpur. The Kundalpur fair takes place in March, beginning with the yearly gathering of Jains, immediately after the *Holi* festival, and lasts a fortnight. It owes its origin to the Jain temple erected at Kundalpur by the Purwar Baniyás, to which the neighbouring Jains resorted to worship Nemináth, and to settle caste disputes. In these adjudications, the delinquents often incur fines, which supply a fund for the repairs of the temple, and for embellishing the place with tanks and groves. The fairs at Bándakpur are held in January and February, at the *Basantpanchumí* and *Siva-rátri* festivals respectively, when crowds of devotees visit the place for the purpose of pouring water from the Ganges or Narbadá (Nerbudda) on the image of Jágeswar Mahádeva, in fulfilment of vows made for prayers granted, or favours solicited. Of the offerings made to the god on these occasions, to the value of nearly £1200 in the year, one-fourth becomes the property of the priests. The proprietor of the temple claims the remaining three-fourths, and is said to expend his share on religious objects. This temple was erected in 1781 by the father of Nágojí Ballál, a respectable Maráthá *pandit* of Damoh, in obedience to a dream, which revealed to him that at a certain spot in the village of Bándakpur an image of Jágeswar Mahádeva lay buried. There he built a temple; and in due time, as the vision foretold, the image arose without the help of man. The fame of this occurrence has attracted throngs of pilgrims, and consequently of traders; and, in 1881, the attendance amounted to 70,000 persons. Piece-goods manufactured at Mariá-Doh, hardware, with trinkets made at Hindoriá and Paterá, form the articles chiefly dealt in. The import traffic on the north-east frontier is considerable, consisting of European and country-made piece-goods, betel, cocoa-nuts, hardware, tobacco, spices, rum, and sugar from Mírzápur and the north-west. But a great proportion of these goods merely passes through the District on the way to Ságar and Bhopál. On the other hand, the Banjárás bring large quantities of salt from the Rájputána salt lakes, by way of Ságar and Damoh, to supply the markets of Bundelkhand. The exports consist of wheat, gram, rice, hides, *ghí*, cotton, and coarse cloth. The total length of made roads in the District is returned at 40 miles of first class, 93 miles of the second, and 139 of the third class. The principal road is that connecting the military station of Ságar (Saugor) with the town of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore). For the 40 miles of its course which lie within this District it is partially bridged, and all the streams it crosses are fordable. The shorter line which joins Ságar with Jokáí on the Mírzápur road, traversing Damoh for 30 miles, should become an important railway feeder.

The only other important line runs from Damoh towards Nagode *viâ* Hatta, and supplies the route for commerce with Mírzápur and the Upper Provinces. Besides these roads, two tracks start from the north-east and north-west of the District, along which the Banjárás drive their trains of pack-bullocks, laden with grain for the markets of Bundelkhand.

Administration.—Damoh was first formed into a separate District under the British Government of the Central Provinces in 1861. It is administered by a European Deputy Commissioner with an Assistant Commissioner and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1881–82, £38,094, of which the land revenue yielded £26,676. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £10,188. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 5; of magistrates, 8; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 50 miles; average distance, 25 miles. Number of police, 382 men (costing £4812), being 1 policeman to about every 7·3 square miles and to 819 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1881–82 was 44·33, of whom 4·10 were females. In the same year the number of Government or aided schools in the District under inspection was 50, attended by a total of 2386 pupils, besides a number of uninspected indigenous schools. The District English school at Damoh town was attended by 218 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned a total of 2853 boys and 130 girls as under instruction, besides 6575 men and 81 women not under instruction, but able to read and write.

Medical Aspects.—The climate may be pronounced fairly healthy. The temperature is lower than is usual in the Districts of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, and the hot winds prove milder and of shorter duration than in Upper India. All the year round, the nights are cool. In the winter it generally rains, and then the weather becomes really cold, and sharp frosts sometimes occur. Rainfall in 1881–82, 42·03 inches; annual average, 56·30 inches. Average temperature in the shade at the civil station for the three years ending 1881:—May, highest reading 107° F., lowest 67·7°; July, highest reading 90·7°, lowest 71·2°; December, highest reading 73·7°, lowest 35·7°. Cholera sometimes sweeps over the District. Small-pox carries off large numbers of children, but appears to be now on the decrease. Vaccination is being steadily pushed on, 11,753 persons having been vaccinated in 1881–82. Fevers are generally prevalent, especially at the conclusion of the monsoon. Those of an intermittent type are the most common forms of the disease. Ophthalmia is very common, as also is guinea-worm. In 1881, 10,661 deaths from all causes were registered, at the ratio of about 35 per 1000 of the population. There were 27 cases of suicide, of which 16 were of women; 94 persons died from snake-bite, or were killed by wild beasts. In the same year, 5 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 14,290 patients. [For further information

regarding Damoh District, see the *Central Provinces Gazetteer* (1870), the *Census Report* of 1881, and the *Administration Reports of the Central Provinces*, 1882–84.]

Damoh.—*Tahsíl* or revenue sub-division in Damoh District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 9′ to 24° 27′ N., long. 77° 57′ to 79° 24′ E. Area, 1792 square miles, of which 476 are cultivated, 420 cultivable, and 896 uncultivable. Population (1881) 187,897, namely, 97,405 males and 90,492 females, residing in 698 towns and villages, and occupying 34,986 houses; average density, 105 persons per square mile. Amount of Government assessment, £14,481, or an average of 11½d. per acre of cultivation. Rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £39,161, or an average of 2s. 7d. per cultivated acre. The *tahsíl* contains 4 civil and 7 criminal courts, including the head-quarters courts; with 5 police and 9 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 140 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 484.

Damoh.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Damoh District. Lat. 23° 50′ N., long. 79° 29′ 30″ E., on the high road between Ságar (Saugor) and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and between Ságar and Allahábád *viâ* Jokái. Population (1881) 8665, namely, 4390 males and 4275 females. The Hindu population, consisting chiefly of Lodhís, Kúrmís, and Bráhmans, numbered 7027; Muhammadans, 1275; Jains, 311; Kabírpanthís, 39; and Christians, 13. The porous sandstone on which the town is built does not easily retain water, and there are but few wells; thus, in spite of the fine tank called the Phutera Tál, good water is scarce. The temperature is considerably increased by radiation from the bluffs near Damoh. There are but few buildings of any interest, most of the old Hindu temples having been destroyed by the Muhammadans, and their materials used to construct a fort, which in its turn has been destroyed.

Dámsang.—Tract of country, Dárjíling District, Bengal.—See DALINGKOT.

Dángs, The.—Tract of country, situated within the limits of the Political Agency of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded north-west by the petty State of Warsávi in the Rewá Kántha Agency; on the north-east by the British Districts of Khándesh and Násik; on the south by Násik District; and on the west by the Bánsda State in Surat District. The Dángs consist of 15 petty States, ruled by Bhíl chieftains, extending from 20° 22′ to 21° 5′ N. latitude, and from 73° 28′ to 73° 52′ E. longitude. The extreme length from north to south is 52 miles, and the breadth 28 miles. Estimated area, about 1000 square miles; population (1881) 45,485; estimated gross revenue of all the chiefs, £3100 (chiefly derived from dues on timber).

The country is covered with dense forest, intersected in all directions by precipitous ravines and rugged mountains, the general slope being

towards the west. The rainfall is heavy; and the air of the valleys, walled in on all sides by steep hill ranges, is close and hot. The water obtained from pools and wells is always full of decaying vegetable matter. From these causes the climate is singularly unhealthy. Except for a few months, from March to May, or during the driest season of the year, no European, and only the hardiest races of natives, can remain in the Dángs. The valleys contain tracts of rich black loam, but the soil on the uplands is the poorer variety of red. None of the mineral resources have as yet been ascertained. Of vegetable products, teak and other timber-trees are by far the most important. With the exception of a little rice and pulse, the crops are confined to the inferior varieties of mountain grains. In the west or Lower Dángs, the valleys and ravine-sides are too densely wooded to be habitable; the few villages and hamlets are generally found on the more open flat-topped spurs and ridges. In the east the country is more open. There are no roads properly so called, but there are 4 principal cart-tracks. The inhabitants of the Dángs belong almost entirely to the wild forest tribes. Most of them are Bhíls, who, accompanied by herds of sheep and goats, move about from place to place, supporting themselves in great measure on game and the natural products of the forest. Under the former Native Governments, the Bhíls were the terror of the neighbouring Districts, and on occasions the most indiscriminate vengeance was taken on them in return for their habitual depredations. After the occupation of Khándesh by the British in 1818, anarchy was at its height. The roads were impassable, villages were plundered, and murders committed daily, the only protection the inhabitants of the plain could obtain being through regular payment of black-mail. An expedition was sent into the Dáng country; but at the end of three months, less than half the force marched back into Maligáon, the others having succumbed to the malaria of the jungle. At that time, Captain (afterwards Sir James) Outram came among the Bhíls. First conciliating them with feasts and his prowess in tiger-shooting, he eventually succeeded in forming a Bhíl corps, originally based on 9 men who had accompanied him on shooting expeditions. In 1827, this Bhíl corps had reached 600 rank and file, who fought boldly for the Government and suppressed plundering. The District treasuries are now under their charge, and the chief police rests in their hands. The tribe next in importance to the Bhíls is called Konkání. They are somewhat more settled in their habits and more inclined to agriculture, though little superior to the Bhíls in appearance. The language of both these tribes is a mixture of Hindustání, Maráthí, and Gujaráthí, in which the last predominates. Education is in a very backward state. In the whole Dángs, not more than half-a-dozen persons can read and write.

There are fifteen petty chiefs in the Dáng country, whose States are returned (1881) as follows:—

Name of State.	Estimated Population.	Supposed Revenue.
		Rs.
Dáng Pimpri,	3,572	3,106
,, Wadhwán,	253	147
,, Ketak Kadupada,	218	155
,, Amálá,	5,361	2,885
,, Chinchli,	1,668	601
,, Pimpládevi,	134	120
,, Palásbihar,	223	230
,, Auchar,	513	201
,, Derbhauti,	4,891	3,649
,, Gárvi,	6,309	5,125
,, Shivbára,	346	422
,, Kirli,	167	512
,, Wásurná,	6,177	2,275
,, Dhude (Bilbári),	1,448	85
,, Surgána,	14,205	11,469
Total,	45,485	30,982

Of these petty estates, fourteen are held by Bhíls, and one by a Kunbí. Four of the petty chieftains claim the title of Rájá; the others are called Náyaks. They are all practically independent, though a nominal superiority is awarded to the Gárvi chief, under whose banner the rest are bound to serve in time of war. In former times, the Gárvi chief was, in common with the other Dáng chiefs, tributary to the Deshmukh of Malhar, a strong fort in the Báglán Sub-division of Násik District. But the oppression exercised by the Deshmukh in collecting his annual tribute of £70 gave rise to such frequent disturbances, that the British Government was induced to deduct the amount from the sums now paid to the Dáng chiefs for the leases of their forests, and hand it over direct to the representative of the Deshmukh.

The administration of justice, civil and criminal, in the Dángs is vested in the Collector of Khándesh as *ex officio* Political Agent; capital sentences, or those involving more than fourteen years' imprisonment, being referred for the confirmation of Government. Petty cases are settled by the Rájás and Náyaks themselves, each in his own jurisdiction, the punishments inflicted being chiefly fines in money and cattle. None of the Dáng chiefs possesses a *sanad* authorizing adoption, and the succession in all cases follows the rule of primogeniture. The whole area of the Dángs is leased to Government in perpetuity, but the lease may be relinquished at any time on giving six months' notice. [See also separate article on the BHIL tribe.]

Dángurli.—Small *zamíndárí* or estate on the left bank of the Wainganga river, in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 80° 11′ E.; and containing only one village. Area, 1905 acres, of which 1176 acres are cultivated, producing a large quantity of the castor-oil plant. The chief claims to be a Rájput. Population (1881) 777.

Dankar. — Picturesque village in Kángrá District, Punjab, and capital of the SPITI tract. Lat. 32° 5′ 30″ N., long. 78° 15′ 15″ E. Stands at an elevation of 12,774 feet above sea-level, on a spur or bluff which juts into the main valley, ending in a precipitous cliff. The softer parts of the hill have been denuded by the action of the weather, leaving blocks and columns of a hard conglomerate, among which the houses are curiously perched in quaint and inconvenient positions. Overtopping the whole rises a rude fort, belonging to Government; while a Buddhist monastery stands on a side of the hill. The inhabitants are pure Tibetans. Dankar has formed the seat of Government for the Spiti valley from time immemorial.

Dankaur. — Ancient town with a good market in Bulandshahr District, Meerut Division, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 28° 21′ 25″ N., long. 77° 35′ 35″ E., on the Jumna (Jamuná), which now flows two miles to the south, but which formerly flowed close under it; distant from Bulandshahr 20 miles south-west, on the old imperial road from Delhi to Aligarh. Population (1881) 5122, namely, Hindus 3984, and Muhammadans 1138; area of town site, 125 acres. Founded according to tradition by Drona or Dona, a hero of the Mahábhárata, from whom the town derives its name. A few ruinous fragments exist of a large fort, built by Kayam-ud-dín Khán in the reign of Akbar, with a mosque of more modern construction. In front of the little shrine erected in honour of the traditional founder, is a masonry tank 210 feet square constructed in 1881, and supplied with water from the Jumna canal. Police station, post-office, village school. Traffic by Makanpur *ghát* passes through Dankaur. A small municipal revenue for conservancy purposes, etc., is levied under the provisions of Act XX. of 1856.

Dankiá.—Mountain in the north of the Chhola range, Sikkim, Bengal; height, 23,176 feet; situated 50 miles east-north-east of Kánchanjangá. Lat. 27° 57′ 30″ N., long. 88° 52′ 15″ E. Although the Dankiá mountain is 5000 feet lower than Kánchanjangá, it is the culminating-point of a much more extensive and elevated mass. An immense range, with an average elevation of 18,500 feet, runs for thirty miles, and thence turns south-west to Kánchanjangá, the river Zemu breaking through at an elevation of 13,000 feet at the bend. The range is again broken through by the Lachen river at a height of 14,000 feet, sixteen miles west of the Dankiá peak. The well-known but little-frequented

Dankiá pass (elevation, 18,400 feet), at the head of the Lachung valley, is four miles west of the Dankiá peak.

Dánta.—State under the Political Agency of Máhi Kántha, in the Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Comprises 78 villages, and marches with Pálanpur and Sirohi. A wild and hilly country, with an estimated population (1882) of 17,456; approximate gross revenue, £2700, inclusive of transit dues. Tribute—£237 to the Gáekwár of Baroda; £51 to the Rájá of Idar; £50 to the Rájá of Pálanpur. Chief crops—millet, Indian corn, wheat, and sugar-cane: area under tillage, 15,000 acres. Marble is found and quarried in Dánta. Manufactures are inconsiderable. There is 1 school, with 51 pupils in 1882. The Chief is a Hindu and a Parmár Rájput by caste; his title is Ráná; and his State ranks among those of the second class. In matters of succession, the family, which has held semi-independent power since 1069 A.D., follows the rule of primogeniture, and does not hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption. The Amba Bhawání shrine, famous throughout India, is situated in this territory. A great portion of the Chief's revenue is derived from the costly offerings of the pious at the shrine. Pilgrims of all ranks visit the place during August, September, October, and November. The history of Dánta has been mainly a record of continual struggles with the neighbouring State of Idar. Together with all the adjoining region, Dánta formerly experienced the incursions of one foreign dynasty after another—Khilji, Mughal, and Maráthá.

Dánta.—Chief town of the State of Dánta, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; 38 miles east of Disa (Deesa), and 136 miles north of Baroda. Lat. 24° 12′ 15″ N., long. 72° 49′ 30″ E.

Dantewára.—Village in Bastár Feudatory State, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 18° 54′ N., long. 81° 23′ 30″ E., at the confluence of the Dankání and Sankání rivers, and to the west of the Belá Dilás, a lofty range of hills. About 60 miles from Jagdalpur, and 120 from Sironcha, on the direct route between these places. Population, about 300. Famed for its temple to Danteswarí or Kalí, the patron goddess of the Rájás of Bastár, where human sacrifices were practised of old.

Dántun.—Chief village in the *parganá* of the same name in Midnapur District, Bengal. Seat of a *munsif's* and of a sub-registrar's court; considerable trade in cloth, made of *tasar* and cotton, manufactured in Morbhanj State and within the District.

Danút-Payá-gyi.—A vast pagoda, now in ruins, in Twan-te township, Hanthawadi District, British Burma. It was formerly the site of a flourishing village, but there are no records extant bearing upon the history of either village or pagoda.

Da-nwun.—A tidal creek in Shwelaung township, Thungwa District, Irawadi (Irrawaddy) Division, British Burma. Navigable by river

steamers. With the Irawadi it forms an island on which stands the village of Kyunpyathat. Lat. 16° 25′ N., long. 95° 12′ 30″ E.

Daphla (or *Duffla*) **Hills.**—A tract of hilly country on the north-east frontier of India, occupied by an independent tribe called Daphlá, akin to the Abars, the Akas, and the Mirís. It lies north of Darrang and Lakhimpur Districts, in the Province of Assam; bounded west by the Aka Hills, and east by the Abar range. The westward boundary is formed by the Bhoroli river, the eastward by the Sundri. The whole Daphla country is only some 60 miles from east to west and 40 from north to south, the inhabited hills varying in height from 2000 to 7000 feet. The Daphlas are divided into two clans—the Tagin Daphlas, whose villages border on Lakhimpur; and the Paschim Daphlas, living on the Darrang frontier. According to the Assam Census Report of 1881, the total number of Daphlas in British territory was 549, confined to Lakhimpur and Darrang Districts. They are of recent settlement in the plains, and of late years have been coming down in small communities of five or six families at a time, driven by scarcity or by the oppressions of the Abars. They assert a superiority over the Mirís, and repudiate any relationship with them, although they practically speak the same language, and their deities Yapúm and Orom are the same, and are propitiated by sacrifices of a white goat or a fowl. Their great god, however, who requires a *mithan* (a species of wild cow) to propitiate him, is called Ui or Wi, of whom no Daphla cares to speak much for fear of incurring his displeasure. While repudiating any connection with the Mirís, the Daphlas claim a close relationship with the Abars, the most powerful of the three tribes. The Daphlas are less laborious cultivators than the Mirís. Their villages are not so well stocked, nor so comfortable, nor are the men so tall as the Mirís, although the eastern Daphlas are physically fine fellows. Going westwards, however, the race degenerates in physique and in outward appearances of prosperity, and the westernmost Daphlas are squalid and dirty. Cultivation is carried on both on the nomadic system of *jum*, and permanently in terraced and irrigated lands in the Ranga valley, the chief crops being rice, Indian corn, tobacco, chillies, pulses, yams, pumpkins, poppy, and sesamum. The villages in their own hills vary in size from 10 to 200 houses, the houses being sometimes from 40 to 60 feet long, and built on bamboo platforms (*chang*). As many as 150 people often live in one house, but many families live separately in small houses. Polygamy is practised when a man can afford a plurality of wives; but polyandry is exceedingly common. The Daphlas bury their dead, and build a small hut over the grave in which they place water and food for five days. They mourn the dead for two days, and the bearers of the corpse to the grave are given two months' holiday from work.

The costume of the men consists generally of a wicker-work helmet with a plume of magpie feathers, but some of the chiefs wear a cylinder of silver round their heads. A cloth is worn tied crossways in front and round the waist and passed between the legs. Many wear a number of cane rings round the waist, arms, and legs, as a protection against sword-cuts. Their weapons consist of a long straight sword or *dáo*, slung round the neck by a piece of string, a bow and arrows, and occasionally a long spear. The term Daphla, which is of uncertain derivation, is that applied to them by the Assamese; they call themselves Niso or Nising. Their political constitution is based upon an excessive subdivision of authority. There are as many as 388 *gáms*, or village chiefs, in receipt of *posá* or commuted black-mail from the British Government, to the total annual amount of £347. In former times the Daphlas were notorious for their raids upon the inhabitants of the plains. At the beginning of the present century, the northern valley of the Brahmaputra was entirely depopulated by the terror thus spread; and during the early years of British administration, the passes leading from the Daphla Hills were regularly blockaded by military outposts. Recently, however, the Daphlas have shown a more peaceable disposition. In return for the annual payment of *posá*, they have kept the peace along their own frontier, and a trade has sprung up between them and the Assamese. In 1872 there was an unfortunate recurrence of their old practices. A party of independent Daphlas, of the Tagin clan, suddenly attacked a colony of their own tribesmen, who had settled at Amtolá, in British territory, and carried away 44 captives to the hills. The motive of this raid was a belief that an outbreak of disease among them was introduced from the plains. During the next two years the hill passes were blockaded by police and soldiers, but with no result. In the cold season of 1874-75, an armed expedition was marched into the hills. No serious opposition was encountered; all the captives that survived were released, and an excellent effect has been produced upon the hill tribes.

Dápoli. — Sub-division of Ratnagiri District, Bombay Presidency. Dápoli is the most northern of the Sub-divisions of the District. Bounded on the east by Kolába and Khed; on the north by Janjíra and Kolába; on the south by the river Váshishti, which separates Dápoli from Chiplun; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. The area is not yet fully surveyed. The Census of 1881 shows an area of 505 square miles, with a population of 141,012 persons, dwelling in 247 villages. Males number 65,846; females 75,166, or more than 53 per cent. In point of religion the population is thus distributed:—Hindus, 123,836, or more than 87 per cent. of the whole; Muhammadans, 16,880; of other religions not specified, 296. As in other parts of the Presidency, the different castes represent various artisan classes and trade guilds.

Kunbís, or cultivators, predominate; the Mángs, Mhárs, and Bhangis constitute the inferior and depressed castes.

The Khed Sub-division separates Dápoli from the Sahyádri range of hills. The seaboard of Dápoli, stretching for thirty miles, has the characteristics of other parts of the Konkan coast; bluff headlands stand at the mouths of the chief rivers, and the coast-line is indented with small and sandy bays. The coast villages, dotted over the low belts of sand lying between the sea and the cliffs, are thickly peopled, and are concealed in dense groves of palm. Bánkot and Dábhol are the extremities of the seaboard, and are situated at the estuaries of the two main rivers of the Sub-division, the Sávitri and the Váshishti. Along the coast lie HARNAI, a good harbourage from northerly winds, and opposite Harnai the island fortress of SUVARNDURG. Inland, the aspect of the Sub-division is bleak and rugged. Boulders of laterite crop out over the bare plateaux of the region, and lie in the innumerable watercourses of long dried-up streams. Eastward the prospect improves. The villages are shaded by clumps of jack and mango trees. Teak grows in some of the more sheltered ravines; and the river banks are covered with brushwood. The climate on the whole is temperate and healthy. The sea-breeze is felt in all parts of the Sub-division. Annual average temperature for the eight years ending 1878, 76° F.; average rainfall for the ten years ending 1877, 112 inches. There are no canals or other irrigation works. The water required is raised from wells by bullock-draught. A small portion of alluvial soil is found on the banks of the rivers and on the flats formed by deposits at their estuaries. A good deal of salt marsh and tidal swamp has been turned into fertile gardens and productive rice-fields. The dry-crop soil is poor and unproductive. Agricultural stock (1879)—oxen, 22,000; cows, 16,200; buffaloes, 7700; sheep and goats, 6273; horses, 60; ploughs, 10,000. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations, 7; regular police, 83. Chief town, Dápoli.

Dápoli.—Head-quarters of Dápoli Sub-division, Ratnagiri District, Bombay Presidency. About 5 miles distant from the sea, with an elevation of 620 feet. One of the healthiest localities in the Konkan.

Dáraganj.—Suburb of Allahábád city, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 41′ N., long. 81° 25′ E., on the right bank of the Ganges, on Akbar's *bandh* or embankment, east of the Allahábád peninsula. Although shown in the Census Report as a separate town, it is in reality a part of Allahábád city, being included within its municipal limits, guarded by the city police, and within the jurisdiction of the city magistrate. Distant two miles from Kydganj, the nearest point of the city proper, and connected with it by the Grand Trunk Road. Population of Daraganj (1881) 13,159, namely, Hindus, 11,085; Muhammadans, 2073; Christian, 1. Area, 149 acres.

Dárapur.—Village in Jehlam (Jhelum) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 46′ N., long. 73° 36′ E., about a mile from the right or west bank of the Jhelum river, just below its junction with the Bunhár torrent. The neighbouring ruins of Udainagar were identified by Burnes with those of Nicæa, built by Alexander to commemorate his victory over Porus. General Cunningham, however, with greater probability, places the site of Alexander's great battle at JALALPUR.

Dárapur. — *Táluk* and town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* DHARAPURAM.

Darauti.—Village in Sháhábád District, Bengal; 5 miles north-east of Rámgarh. Contains some old remains attributed to the Suars or Savirás. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton conjectures, from the style of this work, that the Cherús once had a temple here, and that the obelisks now left standing commemorate its destruction by the Suars.

Darbelo. — Town in the Naushahro Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. The population, which is below 2000, consists mainly of agriculturists, the Muhammadans being of the Kalhora and Pír tribes, the Hindus chiefly Lohános. Annual export of grain, by the Naulakhi Canal, valued at £2000.

Darbhangah.—District in the Patná Division or Commissionership of Behar, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, forming the eastern portion of the old District of Tirhut. It extends from 25° 30′ to 26° 40′ N. lat., and from 85° 35′ to 86° 45′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the independent territory of Nepál; on the east by North Bhágalpur; on the south by Monghyr and the Ganges river; and on the west by Muzaffarpur District. Darbhangah District is 96 miles in length from south-west to north-east, and contains an area of 3665 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 2,633,447 souls. The administrative head-quarters and chief place of the District is DARBHANGAH TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District consists of one large alluvial plain intersected with streams, and in most parts well wooded. Mango groves and clusters of bamboo are numerous, and give a pleasing character to the scenery. But in some tracts, nothing meets the eye except an enormous tract of rice-fields. The District is divided from north to south into three separate tracts, Madhubaní in the north, Tájpur in the south, and Darbhangah proper occupying an intermediate position. The main rivers are the Bághmah, Gandak, Little Baghmati, Karái, and Kamla. In the north, the fall of the ground is from north-east to south-west. In the south of the District, the fall is from north-west to south-east. The Bághmati and Gandak rivers cross into Darbhangah from Muzaffarpur about the latitude of Darbhangah town. The lower courses of these rivers are tortuous,

and are interlaced with each other to an extreme degree. They run together and divide so as to make a great network of deep channels, called by many local names. From north to south the ground rises gradually above flood-level, and proceeding south grows gradually less and less fertile, rice and other crops requiring plentiful moisture. The soil in the southern tracts is saliferous, yielding saltpetre and common salt in considerable quantities. The rivers flow in high raised plateaux above the surrounding country, and flood extensive areas. South of Darbhangah town the river names give but little idea of the fluvial aspects of the District. The Tiljugá, Kamla, Dhaus, Bághmati, Little Bághmati, and Buri Gandak, all mix their waters, not by uniting in a single stream, but by forking and joining into innumerable streams each with different local names. One stream of the Kamlá runs into the Little Bághmati, and afterwards into the Great Bághmati. The names Tiljugá, Little Bághmati, and Buri Gandak seem to have been given with rather inappropriate reference to other rivers of the same name, as if the Tiljugá was mistaken for the lower courses of the Nepál river Trijuga, a tributary of the Kusi river. The only broad sheet of water in the District deserving the name of a lake is the Tál Barailá, covering an area of about 20 square miles in the rainy season. Towards the north of the District and in Nepál, some small streams are dammed up every year. The rivers Kamlá, Balán, and Tiljugá are also embanked, and well irrigation is also carried on. Common long-stemmed rice grows in most parts of the District, the best-known kinds being known as *esariá* and *singrá*, the former growing in from 14 to 18 feet, and the latter in about 5 feet of water. The jungle products of Darbhangah are necessarily few, for there are no forests or uncultivated pasture lands. The few jungle products are beeswax, lime burnt from shells, and a few drugs. The wild animals of the District comprise wolves and wild hog, of which the latter are especially common. Occasionally a stray tiger or leopard wanders down from Nepál along a river bank. Crocodiles infest the rivers; and several kinds of reptiles are dangerous. Porpoises are also common. The small game consists of jackals, foxes, hares, wild ducks, teal, pigeon, snipe, quail, etc. The best kinds of fish are the *arwári* or mulett, and the *hilsa*, found chiefly in the Karái. The other species include the *rohí*, *boari*, *núni*, *katkárá*, *tengrá*, *ma*, *dewá*, *belaunchá*, *chilwá*, *púthiyá*, *dala*, *jhinga*, shrimps, and cray-fish. Snakes abound, the most common being the cobra, *karait*, *gohuman*, *harhara*, *dumúhá*.

Population.—The population of Darbhangah as at present constituted, after the formation of Muzaffarpur and Darbhangah into separate Districts in 1875, amounted in 1872 to 2,139,298; while in 1881 the population was returned at 2,633,447, showing an increase of 494,149, or 23·09 per cent., in nine years, an increase, however, which

is to a considerable extent nominal, being the result of defective enumeration in the first-named year. The results arrived at by the Census of 1882 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3335 square miles, with 6359 towns and villages and 377,818 houses, of which 362,576 were occupied. Total population, 2,633,447, namely, males 1,295,788, and females 1,337,659. Proportion of males in total population, 49·2; average density, 789·6 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·90; persons per village, 414; villages per square mile, 1·90; houses per square mile, 113·25; inmates per house, 7·3. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 2,323,976; Muhammadans, 308,985; Christians, 325; and 152 'others,' nearly all Kols. Among the higher castes of Hindus are included Bráhmans, 179,263; Bábhans or military and cultivating Bráhmans, 118,556; Rájputs, 90,083; Káyasths, 45,124; and Baniyás, 38,343. The most numerous caste in the District are the Gwálás, 341,112 in number; Dosádhs, 189,534; Dhánuks, 130,079; Mallahs, 114,891; Koerís, 129,027; Chamárs, 88,641; Telís, 79,449; Musahárs, 66,793; Tátwás, 61,315; Kurmís, 67,098; Keut or Kewat, 42,067; Madaks, 38,333; Barhais, 38,343; Kandus, 33,472; Nápit, 31,958; Nuniyás, 27,788; Sunris, 25,429; Dhobís, 21,114; Tantis, 21,584; Sonárs, 16,980; Lohárs, 16,320; Pásís, 12,804; Kalus, 11,949; Baurís, 11,871; Kallars, 11,030; Malís, 10,004. Total aboriginal population, including those who have embraced Hinduism, 10,986. Caste-rejecting Hindus, 5790. The 26 most numerous Hindu castes contain in all 91 per cent. of the Hindu population of the District.

Distribution of the People into Town and Country.—Six towns in Darbhangah District contain a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely, DARBHANGAH, population 65,955; MADHUBANI, 11,911; RUSERA, 11,578; BISHNUPUR BHERA, 5963; SULTANPUR, 5860; and MADHUPUR, 5084. Total urban population 106,351, or 4·04 per cent. of the District population, leaving 2,527,096, or 95·96 per cent., for the rural population. Of the 6359 villages and towns returned in 1881, 2375 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 2048 had between two hundred and five hundred inhabitants; 1092 between five hundred and a thousand; 397 between one and two thousand inhabitants; 69 between two and three thousand; 12 between three and five thousand; 3 between five and ten thousand inhabitants; 2 between ten and fifteen thousand; and 1 upwards of 50,000 inhabitants. The Census Report classifies the male population as regards occupation into the following six main classes:—(1) Professional, including all civil and military officials and the learned professions, 6934; (2) domestic servants, hotel-keepers, etc., 42,447; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, and carriers, 32,843; (4) agriculturists, including agriculturists, horticulturists, gardeners, etc., 507,425; (5)

manufacturing and industrial class, 64,215; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including labourers, male children, etc., 601,673.

Agriculture—Land Tenures.—Land is owned in estates of various sizes, from the huge estate of the Mahárájá of Darbhangah, down to the cultivating petty *maháls* of one-acre lots in the hands of the Bráhmans, Bábhans, Rájputs, Káyasths, and Musalmáns. Intermediate leases other than *thikas* or farming leases, are rare. Partition of estates has gone on rapidly of late years. The average size of the small estates is very small indeed. Excluding the Darbhangah estate, which includes nearly one-fifth of the whole District, the average size of the small estates amounts to only about 50 acres.

The principal crops are rice, linseed, indigo, mustard, tobacco, common cereals, and tuberous roots. The great rice country is in Alápur *parganá* in the north-east of the District. The only village officials who in any way deserve the name are the *patwarís*, *jeth ráyats* or leading cultivators, and the *chaukídárs* or village watchmen. The first of these officials is paid by the landlord, and the last by the village cultivator; but both are directly subordinate to the District officer. The *jeth ráyat* is a petty *tahsíldár* or rent collector, and is paid by allowances from the landlord. Rates of rent fluctuate much owing to various causes. The highest rate known is about £1, 8s. an acre for the best tobacco land; the lowest rates are about 2s. 6d. per acre for poor rice land. Local custom forms a strong factor in the rent question, the higher castes paying much lower rates than those below them in the social scale. Average rents may be taken at about 7s. per acre for rice, and 10s. for land producing spring crops. Wages are generally paid in kind, ranging from 2d. a day in the country to 6d. a day in the towns. Skilled labour in the towns is paid for as highly as 1s. a day. Principal manufactures—indigo, sugar, tobacco, saltpetre, cloth, and pottery. The indigo trade is almost entirely in the hands of European planters, and the sugar-cane is confined to natives. A tobacco factory has recently been established at Púsa in Tájpur Sub-division, which turns out cigars and prepares tobacco after European and American methods. The trade of the District is considerable. In the north, merchandise is carried by means of carts and pack-bullocks from Darbhangah; much of it goes south by rail *viâ* the Tirhút State Railway; and the less perishable articles are conveyed by water. The main line of the Tirhút State Railway runs through Darbhangah District, and is continued into north-eastern Bhágalpur. The northern roads have the same general course as the rivers, namely from north-east to south-west.

Administration.—The gross revenue of Darbhangah District in 1881-82 amounted to £167,278, of which the land revenue contributed £81,926; cesses, £31,733; excise, £16,882; and stamps, £16,259. In the same year, the gross expenditure was £52,748. The strength

of the regular police was 312 men, costing £4936, besides a village watch numbering 3241, and maintained at a cost to the cultivators of £11,751. The municipal police numbered 147 of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £1113. The District contains one first-class and two second-class municipalities at Darbhangah, Rusera, and Madhubani, with an aggregate population of 89,444. Aggregate municipal income (1881–82), £4736, or an average taxation on the population within municipal limits of 1s. 3d. per head. Education is not making much progress. The Darbhangah estate maintains the *zillah* (or District) school, and affords liberal help to others. There are the usual English schools, with a large number of *páthsálás*, and a Sanskrit school at Madhubani.

Climate.—The climate is dry, generally mild, and fairly healthy. The ordinary variations of the thermometer are not excessive. Average recorded rainfall, 50 inches. Fever is constant, and causes the highest mortality. Cholera attacks the District as an epidemic every four or five years. Small-pox is not common.

Darbhangah.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Darbhangah District, Behar, Bengal. Area, 1222 square miles; number of towns and villages, 2260; occupied houses, 136,170. Population (1881), males 480,241, and females 489,758; total, 969,999. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 822,043, Muhammadans 147,817, and Christians 139. Average density, 793 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·85; persons per town or village, 429; houses per square mile, 113; persons per house, 7·12. The Sub-division comprises the three police circles (*thánás*) of Darbhangah, Bahera, and Ruserá. In 1883 it contained 1 civil and 5 criminal courts, with a regular police of 255 officers and men, and a village watch or rural police of 1132 men.

Darbhangah.—The head-quarters station and principal town of Darbhangah District; situated in lat. 26° 10′ 2″ N., long. 85° 56′ 39″ E., on the left or east bank of the Little Bághmati river. It ranks third in population and size among the towns of Behar. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 65,955, namely, males 33,633, and females 32,322. Hindus numbered 48,276; Muhammadans, 17,566; and 'others,' 113. Area of town site, 3840 acres. The town has been constituted a first-class municipality, with an income in 1881–82 of £3760, of which £2031 was derived from taxation, being an average of 7½d. per head of the municipal population; expenditure in 1881, £2514. One of the principal features in Darbhangah is the number of large tanks within the town. The three principal ones are situated in a line, with a drive passing from one to the other, their united length being 6000 feet. Darbhangah was originally a Muhammadan town. According to some authorities, the name is derived from one Darbhangí

Khán, the founder; while others say the word is a corruption of *Dar-i-Bangal*, or 'Door of Bengal,' alluding to the fact that it was a Muhammadan cantonment. It has even been conjectured that the large tanks above referred to, were dug to make raised grounds for the soldiers' houses. The whole country around the town becomes a swamp during the rains, being subject to inundations from the Kamlá and Little Bághmati; and the scarcity of high ground caused some difficulty in finding a suitable site for the new civil station in 1875. The *bázárs* are large, and markets are held daily. A handsome large market-place has recently been constructed between the hospital and the Mahárájá's garden. A considerable trade is carried on, and the communications by road are good in all directions. The Tirhút State Railway connects the town with Bajítpur on the banks of the Ganges, a distance of 45 miles; and Bajítpur in its turn is connected by a steam ferry with Bárh, one of the stations on the main line of the East Indian Railway. The principal exports from the town are oil-seeds, *ghí*, and timber; and the imports, food-grains, salt, gunny cloth, soft goods, lime, and iron.

Darbhangah has been the residence of the Mahárájás of Darbhangah since 1762. The family trace their origin to one Mahesh Thákur, a priest under the ancient Rájás of Tirhút. After Tirhút was conquered by the Muhammadans, and the race of the old princes became extinct, Mahesh Thákur is said to have proceeded to Delhi, where he obtained the grant of the Darbhangah Ráj from the Emperor Akbar. But the title of Rájá was not duly confirmed until the time of Rághu Singh in 1700. The residence of the family was then at Bhawárá, near Madhubani, where the remains of an old mud fort are still pointed out, which is said to have been built by Rághu Singh. A temporary settlement was concluded by the British Government with Mádhu Singh, who succeeded to the Ráj in 1776. A long series of disputes and misunderstandings ensued. The Rájá refused to engage for the decennial settlement of 1790, alleging that grave injustice had been done him by the authorities. The estate was therefore leased out to two Muhammadan farmers. But in November 1791, the one resigned his share, and shortly afterwards the other was killed by a fall from his horse at Patná, and his heirs refused to continue the lease. Mádhu again refused the settlement. The lease was then renewed to a number of small leaseholders, from 1793 up to 1800, when it expired. Negotiations were again entered into with the Rájá, but they fell through as before, and the estate was once more let in farm. At last the property was restored to the Rájá on his consenting to pay an increase of revenue. Mádhu Singh died in 1808. His son Chhatar Singh, who lived till 1839, was the first who received the title of Mahárájá. On his death the succession was disputed, but after costly litigation, his

eldest son, Rúdar Singh, was declared heir to the title. Rúdar Singh died in 1850.

His son Maheshwar died in 1860, leaving two sons, Lakshmeswar, the present Mahárájá, and Rameswar his brother. As these were minors, the Court of Wards took charge of their possessions. Everything was in confusion; the estate was £700,000 in debt, and the revenue was only £160,000. Under the management of the Court of Wards, the property has greatly improved; the debt has been paid off, and the rental has increased by £40,000. Besides this, £547,600 had been saved prior to the famine of 1874; but nearly £300,000 was then expended in charitable relief. The present Mahárájá came of age in 1879. The estate supports a first-class dispensary at Darbhangah, another at Kharakpur, and a third at Narahiyá; an Anglo-vernacular school and 22 vernacular schools in its villages. It further contributes largely to 6 dispensaries and 27 schools. It has opened 150 miles of new road, along which about 20,000 trees have been planted. Seventeen iron and 148 masonry bridges have been erected over navigable rivers; and extensive irrigation works, at a cost of £70,000, have been constructed on the Kharakpur estate in Monghyr District. The wards were educated at Benares. When the Government took charge, the family residence at Darbhangah consisted of a few low-built houses, hemmed in by hovels in the town. Many of the latter have been removed, and new buildings have been erected, surrounded by well-laid-out gardens of about 55 acres in extent. A magnificent new palace, with a menagerie and aviary, has recently been erected for the Mahárájá's residence. The estates of the Ráj are situated in the Districts of Darbhangah, Muzaffarpur, Monghyr, Purniah, and Bhágalpur. The total rental is £238,000; the total Government revenue, £40,000.

Dareh-bauk.—The name given to the northern mouth of the Salwín river from Martaban to the sea. Several centuries ago, it was the ordinary entrance for ships coming to Martaban in Tenasserim, British Burma; but for many years it has been so choked with sandbanks as to be impassable by sea-going vessels.

Dareh-byú.—Creek in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma, forming one of the entrances from the sea to the Ywe. Its mouth, in lat. 15° 51′ 20″ N., and long. 90° 41′ 20″ E., is so obstructed by sandbanks as scarcely to afford a passage for the smallest sea-going craft, but the rest of the river is easily navigable by river steamers.

Dárjíling.—The District of Dárjíling forms the most northerly portion of the Rájsháhí Kuch Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 26° 30′ 50″ and 27° 12′ 45″ N. latitude, and between 88° 1′ 30″ and 88° 56′ 35″ E. longitude, running up between Nepál and Bhután towards Independent Sikkim.

The British frontier is demarcated on the north from Sikkim by a series of rivers and mountain torrents, on the west from Nepál by a lofty range of hills; along the east and south run the British Districts of Jalpáigurí and Purniah. The area was returned in 1881 at 1234 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1881, numbers 155,179 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the station and sanitarium of DARJILING.

Physical Aspects.—The District naturally divides into two distinct tracts—the ridges and deep valleys of the lower Himálayas, and the *tarái* or sub-montane marshy strip immediately beneath the hills. The surface of the plains from which the Sikkim Himálayas take their rise is said to be only 300 feet above sea-level, the mountains starting abruptly from the plains in spurs of from 6000 to 10,000 feet, densely clothed with forest to their summits. The scenery is of a magnificent character. The background is formed by a jagged line of dazzling snow, connecting the two highest known peaks in the world, Everest and Kánchanjangá, each above 28,000 feet. Imposing series of parallel mountain ridges intervene, broken by almost perpendicular valleys. Up to 12,000 feet, these ridges are clad with dark-green foliage; on the high slopes the rhododendron predominates, lower down occur forests of pine and deodar, and near the plains the valuable *sál* timber. To travellers fresh from the swamps of Bengal, this picturesque region would prove yet more alluring, were it not for the mists and showers which are continually closing upon the scene. European planters are now dotting the slopes of the lower ranges with trim tea-gardens. The *tarái* portion of the District was formerly overgrown with malarious jungle, amid which the aboriginal tribes of Mechs, Dhímáls, and Kochs formed clearings by fire, and reared crops of rice and cotton on a system of primitive nomadic husbandry. It has now, however, been extensively cleared for settled tillage, and for tea gardens.

The loftiest mountains are situated outside British territory; but within it on the Singálilá range, marching with Nepál, are several peaks above 10,000 feet in height. The highest peaks are—Phalálum, height 12,042 feet; Subargum, 10,430 feet; and Tanglu, 10,084 feet. Situng is another bold peak in the District, of a conical form, situated south-east of Dárjíling. The station of DARJILING itself has an elevation of 7167 feet above sea-level; and on the long undulating range of Sinchál Pahár there were formerly barracks for a European regiment 1500 feet higher, but these have been abandoned for some years, owing to the exposed position of the place. The military lines are now at Jallapahár, about a mile from Dárjíling, and at an elevation of about 500 feet above the station. The chief rivers are the TISTA, the MAHANANDA, and the BALASAN, with their numerous affluents. The Tístá, like many of the other great rivers of Northern India, rises on the farther

side of the Himálayas, and bursts through the mountain barrier before it reaches British territory. One of its chief affluents is the Great Ranjít; and a little below the junction of the two rivers, a fine suspension bridge has been thrown across the Tístá. This bridge is a most important addition to the communications of the District, as it connects the tract east of the Tístá with the main portion of the District, and keeps open throughout the year the great trade route across the Jeylep pass into Tibet. At the point where the Tístá debouches on the plains, through a gorge known as the Sivak Golá pass, its volume is very considerable, and it becomes at once navigable for boats of two tons burthen, although navigation is very difficult and precarious, owing to rapids, and numerous rocks and large stones in the bed of the river. Its tributaries include the Ránchu and Roli, on the left bank; and on the right, the Great Ranjít, Rangjo, Ráyeng, and Sivak. The Mahánanda, while passing through Dárjíling, is a smaller stream, and altogether loses itself in the sand of the *tarái* for a portion of its course. Its tributaries join it below the District boundary. The Balásan takes its rise a few miles south-west of Dárjíling, and after a southerly course enters the *tarái*, when it divides into two streams, one of which, the New Balásan, branches off and joins the Mahánanda, while the parent stream continues its southerly course till it enters Purniah District. Two small lakes or tarns are situated amid the hills.

The mineral products of the District comprise coal, iron, copper, calcareous tufa, and slate. There are several caverns situated in the hills, the most important of which is situated near the Cutcherry (Kachári) hill in Dárjíling station, and is superstitiously believed by the natives to extend as far as Lhásá in Tibet. The Rammán river is crossed by a natural bridge of stone, between the junction of the Rátho and Srí with that river. With the exception of the Sivak Golá Pass, through which the Tístá river debouches on the plains, there are no gorges or passes in the District; but every valley and every turn of the road within the hills is highly picturesque. Several important revenue-yielding forests are strictly conserved by the Forest Department.

The principal pasture grounds are the reserved Government forests, and in the rains the higher mountains. The Gúrungs, a Nepálí tribe, annually depasture large flocks of sheep in this District, taking them to the heights in the rains, and in the cold weather bringing them down to the plains for sale. The Gháliás, another Nepálí tribe, and the Bhutiás and Lepchás depasture large herds of buffaloes and cows indiscriminately. The Mechs in the plains, and the Nepálís in the hills, collect jungle products for sale, but this is merely a subsidiary occupation to that of agriculture. Game is not abundant in the hilly tracts. Among the larger kinds are bears, leopards, and musk deer

on the higher mountains; large deer (*sambhár*) on the lower ranges; and a few elephants and tigers on the slopes above the plains. In the *tarái*, tigers, rhinoceros, deer, wild hog, and a distinct species of dwarf hog are pretty numerous. A few wolves are also found. Among the smaller sorts of game, hare, jungle-fowl, peacock, partridge, snipe, woodcock, wild duck, wild geese, and green pigeon, abound in the *tarái*. Jungle-fowl and pheasants are met with in the hills. Good *mahsír* fishing is to be had in the Tístá.

The History of Dárjíling presents a late chapter in the extension of British Rule. The Gúrkha war of 1815–16 first brought the Company into direct relations with this region. It was then found that the aggressive Gúrkhas had appropriated from the Rájá of Sikkim the *morang* or *tarái* portion of the present District; and it was one of the articles of the peace of 1816, that this strip should be ceded to the British, who immediately gave it back again to the Sikkim chief. In 1835, under the Governor-Generalship of Lord William Bentinck, the nucleus of what was originally known as 'British Sikkim' was created by the purchase, from the Rájá of Sikkim, of the sanitarium of Dárjíling, with a portion of the surrounding hills, in consideration of an allowance of £300, afterwards increased to £600 per annum. This ceded tract is described in the Deed of Grant as 'all the land south of the Great Ranjít river, east of the Balásan, Káhel, and Little Ranjít rivers, and west of the Rangmi and Mahánanda rivers,' containing about 138 square miles. Dárjíling soon became a favourite summer retreat for the officials of Lower Bengal and their families; it was also established as a sanitarium for invalided European soldiers. A good deal of land was taken up from the Government on building leases, but tea cultivation was not introduced till a much later date. In 1849, Dr. Hooker paid a visit to Dárjíling, and founded upon his experiences then gathered his well-known and most interesting *Himalayan Journals* (2 vols., London 1854). His visit was also productive of important political consequences. With the sanction of the British Government, and with an express permission from the Rájá of Independent Sikkim, he had crossed the frontier into that State, accompanied by Dr. Campbell, the Superintendent of Dárjíling District. There they were treacherously seized and imprisoned, by the authority of the Rájá's Díwán or Prime Minister. A military expedition was despatched to rescue the prisoners, and avenge the insult. The yearly allowance granted to the Rájá was stopped. The Sikkim *morang* or *tarái*, at the foot of the hills, was annexed; and a considerable addition was also made to the British territory that lay among the mountains. In all, about 640 square miles of land were acquired on this occasion. Finally, in 1864, the District received a further augmentation by the cession of a hilly tract east of the Tístá, which had become British

territory as the result of the Bhután campaign of that year. This tract covers an area of 486 square miles, and is known as the Sub-division of Kalimpong or Dálingkot. The relations between the British Government and the State of Sikkim, which are conducted through the Deputy Commissioner of Dárjíling, are now of a most friendly character. The allowance to the Rájá has not only been restored, but has been raised to £1200 a year; and his Darbár lends all the assistance in its power to the development of the through trade with Tibet. Dárjíling has obtained a place in the history of oriental scholarship, as the residence for years of Mr. Brian Houghton Hodgson, of the Bengal Civil Service. Mr. Hodgson, after distinguished services as Resident in Nepál, retired from active employment, and devoted himself to the study of the Sub-Himálayan races. He fixed his head-quarters at Dárjíling; and from that District issued his remarkable series of essays and researches, which still form the basis of any systematic study of the non-Aryan peoples of India.

The popularity of Dárjíling as a sanitarium has been fully maintained in recent years, notwithstanding the rival attractions of Simla and other hill stations in Northern India. The opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway to the foot of the hills, and of the Dárjíling and Himálayan Railway up to Dárjíling itself, has rendered the station easily accessible from the plains and Calcutta, from which it can be reached in 24 hours. The popularity of the place has rapidly increased since the railway extension; and new private buildings and municipal improvements have been rapidly pushed forward during the past few years. (*See* DARJILING TOWN.) The enterprise of European capital, in the form of tea cultivation and manufacture, has opened a new era of prosperity. The oldest tea-garden now existing only dates back to 1856. In 1882-83, 165 gardens were open, with an estimated production of more than 8 million pounds of tea. The cinchona tree has been successfully introduced, so that Dárjíling now aids in saving from fevers even those who are compelled to remain on the plains.

Population.—In 1872, the population of Dárjíling District, according to the Census Report of that year, was 94,712, spread over an area of 1234 square miles. The Census returns for 1881 disclosed a total population of 155,179, living on the same area, showing an increase of 60,467 persons, or 63·84 per cent., in the nine years. This remarkable increase, however, is to a great extent only nominal, owing to defective enumeration in the *tarái* and eastern Tístá tracts in 1872. Nevertheless, the Census officer reports that at least one-half of the reported increase is real, being due to the rapid development of the tea industry, and the extraordinary demand for labour on the railway and other public works. 'To meet this rapidly-increasing demand, the local supply of labour was quite unequal; and the result has been an unexampled

immigration. So that in Dárjíling District more than half the population (52·44 per cent.) were born outside its limits. Of this number, 55,000 are hillmen from beyond the British frontier, chiefly from Nepál; nearly 5000 came from the neighbouring District of Jalpáigurí, and more than 10,000 from Purniah. The remainder are composed of representatives from almost every Province of India.' The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1234 square miles; number of towns and villages, 943; number of houses, 29,904, of which 29,028 are occupied and 876 unoccupied. The population numbered 155,179, namely, males 88,948, and females 66,231; proportion of males in total population, 57·45 per cent. Average density, 125·7 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·76; persons per village, 163; houses per square mile, 24·2; persons per house, 5·3. Classified according to religious belief, the population was returned as follows:—Hindus, 126,717; Sikhs, 3; Muhammadans, 8204; Christians, 842; Buddhists, 18,775; Bráhmos, 14; aboriginal religions, 624. The great bulk of the population consists of aboriginal or semi-aboriginal tribes, among whom the Nepálís are the most numerous. The Lepchás, who are considered the primitive inhabitants of Sikkim, are included among the Buddhists, but are few in number, and the race is said to be declining. (*See* separate article, LEPCHA, in its alphabetical order.) The Nepálís, including the Murmís, are divided among no less than 42 sub-tribes, and are returned among the Hindus. The Rájbansí Kochs number 30,801. The Bhutiás are not returned separately in the Census, but are included among the Buddhists. Of the Hindus proper, the two superior castes of Bráhman (numbering, including Bábhans, 10,739) and Rájput (6352) are the most numerously represented, very few of the other recognised Hindu castes exceeding 1000 in number. The population of Dárjíling increased by more than one-half between 1872 and 1881, and is still growing at a rapid rate. The Nepálís are coming across the frontier in large numbers, and are eagerly welcomed by the tea-planters as their most valuable labourers; while Bengális from the plains are gradually extending over the *tarái.* The Bráhma Samáj is represented by a few Bengálí Government clerks at Dárjíling station, who have no regular place of meeting.

The population may be divided into those connected with the tea industry, and the aboriginal agriculturists. There are no towns with the exception of DARJILING station, 4033, which in February 1881 had a population of 7018, which may be assumed as the permanent population; but to this number must be added the temporary visitors during the summer months. The only other place of any note is KARSIANG (Kurseong), situated in the lower hills, 20 miles to the south, with a population in 1881 of 4033. Of the 943 villages, 769 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 114 between two hundred and five hundred;

46 between five hundred and a thousand; 11 between one and two thousand; and 3 upwards of two thousand.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the one food-crop grown in the *tarái* portion of the District; but among the hills, Indian corn, millets (*maruá*, etc.), wheat, potatoes, and cardamoms are also grown, wherever practicable. Subordinate crops in the plains are cotton, jute, pulses, oil-seeds, and sugar-cane. As usual throughout Bengal, the rice crop is divided into two harvests, the *áman* or *haimantik*, reaped in winter, and the *áus* or *bhadai*, reaped in the month of Bhádra (August to September). Rice cultivation is rapidly extending through the *tarái*, although somewhat retarded by the requirements of the Forest Department. Bengalí and Nepálí cultivators use the plough, and plough cultivation is also extending among the aboriginal tribes, especially in the tract to the east of the Tístá. The nomadic method of agriculture known as *júm*, which consists in burning down a fresh patch of jungle land each successive year, is decreasing. The *dáo* or hill knife is used for all rustic operations. Manure is not commonly applied anywhere; but throughout the *tarái*, and in the hills wherever natural facilities are afforded, irrigation is industriously practised by the cultivators of all classes. In the *tarái* and hills, the land measurements locally known are the *hál* and *páti*, the former being the quantity of land which a plough and pair of oxen can turn up in one day, and the latter the weight of seed required to sow a given area. The seed standard is a most variable one; but for general purposes one *páti* may be taken as the equivalent of 8 lbs. weight of seed, and twelve *pátis* as the measure of seed required for one acre. According to the other standard, an acre is represented by a quarter *hál*, or a plough and pair of oxen for four acres. These local measurements are now being superseded by the English standard acre, by which the recent land settlement with the native cultivators was made, and according to which, no doubt, the hillman will be able in the course of time to calculate the area of his holding. The average yield of Indian corn on the best lands in the hills is $7\frac{1}{3}$ cwts. or 10 *maunds* per acre, and on inferior lands about $3\frac{1}{2}$ cwts. In the *tarái*, the yield of rice per acre varies from $8\frac{3}{4}$ cwts. or 12 *maunds* to $3\frac{1}{2}$ cwts. per acre. A revised land settlement was concluded in 1880 with the *jotdárs* for a period of ten years, at rates varying from 3s. to 4s. per acre. In the Kálimpong Sub-division in the hills east of the Tístá, most of the land under native cultivation has been surveyed and settled on ten years' leases with the occupiers, dating from 1882, the assessment being at the rate of 1s. per acre for the best and 6d. per acre for inferior lands, liable to enhancement at the expiry of five years to 1s. 6d. per acre for the best and 9d. per acre for inferior land. This money assessment is in substitution for the poll-tax formerly paid by the cultivators. About thirty thousand acres have already been

settled in this manner; but in the more sparsely-cultivated portions of the Sub-division, the poll-tax is still levied at the rate of 5s. for each adult male, and 4s. for each adult female. In the Government estates (*Khás mahâls*) west of the Tístá, a house-tax of 6s. per house is levied; but these estates will shortly be assessed with the cultivators on joint *ráyatwári* leases, at money rates approved by the Government, viz. 1s. 6d., 1s. 1½d., and 9d. per acre, according to the quality of the soil. The cultivated area of these *mahâls* is between 20,000 and 30,000 acres. The other tenures in the District, which include the tea leases, are (1) freehold and (2) leasehold grants. The former consist of commuted leases; the latter are for terms varying from ten to thirty years. All tea leases now falling in will, under recent orders of Government, be renewed for a term of twenty years at an all-round rate of one rupee or 2s. an acre. Besides the foregoing there are building leases for lands in Dárjíling station and Karsiang. The Dárjíling municipality receives the ground rents of sites within municipal limits.

The average price of rice in the *tarái* during the five years ending 1881–82 was 8s. a cwt., the current rate in the last year being 6s. 8d. in the *tarái* and 8s. per cwt. in the hills. The average price of Indian corn in the hills for the five years was 6s. 11d. per cwt., the current rate in 1881–82 being 5s. 11d. per cwt. These are the two main food-crops of the District. The fall in prices, while due to some extent to good harvests, is in a great measure attributable to the improved means of communication afforded by the Dárjíling and Himálayan Railway, and the Tístá bridge. On the other hand, wages have risen. This is mainly due to the large demand for skilled labour for the great public works in progress—the railway, Tístá bridge, hospital, etc. The following rates prevail:—Goldsmiths, £3 per month; Chinese carpenters, £6 per month; native carpenters, from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 6d. per diem; masons, £1, 8s. per month; day-labourers, 6d. to 9d. per diem; tea-garden coolies, 6s. to 10s. per month; grass-cutters, 14s. per month; domestic servants, from 18s. to £1, 12s. per month.

Tea.—The staple industry of Dárjíling is the cultivation and manufacture of tea. It is conducted almost entirely by means of English capital and under skilled European supervision. The discovery of tea in India dates from 1826, when a Mr. Bruce, who commanded a flotilla of gunboats in Upper Assam in the first Burmese war, found the plant growing wild, and brought down with him some plants and seeds. It was not till some time after tea cultivation had established itself in the Assam Valley that any attempt was made to introduce it into Bengal proper. The first regular tea-garden in Dárjíling was opened in 1856; and after the natural mistakes of the first few years, the business has continued to prosper with accelerating prosperity. In 1866 there

were 39 gardens established, with an area under cultivation of 10,392 acres, yielding an out-turn of 433,715 lbs. of tea. By 1875 the number of gardens had increased to 121, with an area under cultivation of 22,162 acres, and an out-turn of 4,600,758 lbs. of tea. In 1882–83 the number of tea-gardens numbered 165, covering a total planting area of 44,482 acres, of which 26,716 acres were under mature and 5854 under immature plant, while 12,282 acres taken up for planting had not been put under seed. The approximate yield of the season 1882–83 was 8,080,293 lbs. A favourable season and good markets combined to render the years 1881–82 and 1882–83 very encouraging ones for the planters, and to re-establish many gardens to which the disastrous year of 1880–81 had nearly proved fatal. Improved machinery and processes of manufacture have been introduced into many of the gardens. Plucking is more carefully attended to than formerly, and greater regard is paid to the withering and manipulation of the leaf. Steam machinery is used now on many gardens, while in others water-power is employed. The principal blights which tea-planters have to contend with are the red spider, green fly, and mosquito blight. This last-named insect causes most apprehension in the lower ranges of the hills. The plague is said to be increasing, and to be more serious than the red spider by attacking the bud, and not allowing the plant even to mature. The red spider proves a terrible scourge in some gardens, and baffles the efforts of the most energetic planter to get rid of. A white grub turning into a brown beetle attacks the roots of the tea plant, and wherever it makes its appearance is exceedingly destructive. Coolie labour is on the whole plentiful, and the light nature of the work attracts a number of immigrants from the surrounding hill States, especially Nepál. The Census of 1881 shows that during the previous decade there has been a great increase of settled immigration of Nepális with their wives and families to the Dárjíling tea-gardens. Women and children take a large part in the labour on a garden, in plucking and sorting. The Dárjíling and Himálayan Railway has greatly increased the facilities for the transport of tea to Calcutta.

Cinchona, etc.—The cultivation of cinchona was commenced by Government in 1862, and the experiment has now established its success. In 1875, a sum of £5217 was expended on the plantations; the yield of dry bark was 211,931 lbs., which produced 1989 lbs. of quinine valued at £3182. This was the first year when the young trees came into bearing. The total number of trees in the plantation on the 31st March 1882, was 4,762,200 cinchonas of all sorts. The crop of bark amounted to 341,570 lbs. Of cinchona febrifuge, 10,878 lbs. were issued during the year; 4650 lbs. were sold to the general public, and the remainder was supplied to Government hospitals and dispensaries. There was a net profit on the year's working of £13,000, equal

to a dividend of 13 per cent. on the capital expended. The saving effected by Government during the year by the substitution of cinchona febrifuge for quinine was £35,000. The success of the Government plantation has induced private cultivation. One company has taken up a large tract of ground east of the Tístá for this purpose, and another is rearing seedlings on its tea-gardens. The experimental cultivation of ipecacuanha has also been attempted, but without much success as yet. In 1876, a public botanical garden was established at Rangárún; but this has since been abandoned, and a new garden has been established in the station.

Dárjíling is not liable to either of the calamities of flood or drought. In the event of local scarcity from any cause, the hill people could always save themselves from starvation by migrating to other localities; but in the *tarái*, previous to the construction of the railway, the inhabitants were in some danger of isolation. If the price of rice were to rise rapidly in January, after the gathering of the *áman* or low-land rice crop, that should be regarded as a sign of approaching scarcity.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—Coarse cotton cloth is woven by all the aboriginal tribes, especially by the Lepchás. The favourite colours are white, with blue and red borders. These Lepchá cloths are in some request among the residents and visitors to the station. The price of the better sorts varies from £1 to £1, 8s. each.

The local trade of Dárjíling is entirely confined to the wants of European inhabitants, and of the tea plantations. A considerable trade is carried on by the hillmen with residents and visitors in China cups, turquoise, coral, and amber ornaments, jade and agate cups and beads, praying wheels, bells, amulets, and other curiosities illustrative of Buddhist monastic life; *kukris*, Bhutiá, and Lepchá knives, etc. The Dárjíling shopkeepers trade mostly in European piece-goods, stores, glass, hardware and crockery. Much attention has recently been directed to the development of through trade with Tibet *viâ* Sikkim, and with Nepál. In 1881, the import of untaxed salt from trans-Himálayan sources into Dárjíling amounted to 1658 cwts. The chief articles of import from Nepál are sheep, goats, cattle, poultry, hides, food-grains, and country cloth; the exports consisting principally of European piece-goods, gram, salt, vegetables, betel-nut, sugar, and tobacco. The trade with Sikkim is of the same character as that with Nepál, but is more extensive. In 1882–83 the total value of the Sikkim trade through Dárjíling was £31,644, namely, imports £20,014, and exports £11,629. The Bhután trade mainly passes through Jalpáigurí District. The Dárjíling and Himálayan Railway is gradually absorbing all the District traffic, to the exclusion of bullock carts and pack ponies.

Mines.—The mineral wealth of Dárjíling was carefully investigated in 1873 by Mr. Mallet of the Geological Survey. He was of opinion that

the coal measures, which are easily exposed, but are of a peculiar friable character, might possibly be used remuneratively on the Northern Bengal Railway. Their chemical analysis is good, especially for the formation of artificial fuel, but there would be no little difficulty in delivering the coal on the plains. Both iron and copper are worked in several places by the Nepálís, but the character and accessibility of the mines is not such as to attract European capital. Lime can be procured in abundance from dolomite, tertiary limestone, and calcareous tufa. The last-mentioned is now largely burned in kilns.

The Northern Bengal State Railway stops in the plains at Siliguri, about 8 miles short of the hills; but railway communication is carried on to Dárjíling by the Dárjíling and Himálayan Railway, 40 miles in length. In 1882, the total length of roads within the District was returned at 617 miles. An excellent iron suspension bridge has recently been constructed across the Tístá on the highway to Tibet.

Administration.—In 1880–81, the total revenue of Dárjíling District amounted to £18,814, towards which the land-tax contributed £11,967. The expenditure was £14,151. In the following year, 1881–82, the total revenue had increased to £30,003, and the land-tax to £13,843, while the civil expenditure was £17,667. Under the head of land revenue is included the house and bullock tax paid in a certain portion of the hills, and also the poll-tax levied in the still unsettled tract east of the Tístá. In 1882 there were 3 covenanted officers stationed in the District, and 6 magisterial and 4 civil and revenue courts open, presided over by 6 stipendiary magistrates and 5 civil judges. In 1881, the regular police force consisted of 223 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £4093, and a municipal police of 35 officers and men, costing £496. These figures give 1 policeman to 5 square miles of area, or to every 601 persons in the population; the cost averaged £3, 14s. 5d. per square mile, and 7¼d. per head of population. In the same year, the number of persons in Dárjíling District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1492, being 1 person to every 104 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail, which is necessarily a very expensive one on account of the small number of prisoners confined. In 1881, the daily average number of prisoners was 88·8, of whom 2·77 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 81·6. These figures show 1 prisoner to every 1747 of the District population.

Education has considerably advanced in recent years, despite the difficulties caused by an aboriginal population speaking various strange tongues, and dwelling in widely-scattered huts among the mountains. Up to 1860 there was only 1 school in the District—the Government English School, attended by 33 pupils. By 1872, the number of schools had risen to 29 with 723 pupils; the total expenditure was £1735,

towards which Government contributed £667. In 1875, the schools further increased to 46 and the pupils to 994. The Census of 1881 returned 1610 boys and 179 girls under instruction, and 5686 males and 269 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The principal educational institution is the St. Paul's School, established at Calcutta in 1845 for the sons of Europeans and East Indians, and removed to Dárjíling in 1864. In 1881 it was attended by 134 pupils, and received a Government grant of £505. Other schools for European and Eurasian education are — a Government boarding-school at Karsiang, attended in 1881 by 28 boys and 13 girls; a Protestant girls' school, with 85 pupils; St. Joseph's Roman Catholic Seminary, with 51 pupils; and the Dárjíling Convent School, with 36 boys and 131 girls. A Government boarding-school for aboriginal tribes has also been established in Dárjíling, and is attended by Lepchás from Sikkim, and Bhutiás. All the pupils learn English and Tibetan. Its purpose is to train up a body of explorers, surveyors, and interpreters; and it has been fairly successful in this respect. The Church of Scotland has established a number of primary schools, chiefly for the children of Nepálí coolies working in the tea-gardens. An English newspaper, the *Dárjíling News*, is printed at the station.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Dárjíling is marked by excessive humidity. According to Dr. Hooker, 'Sikkim is the dampest region in the whole Himálayas. . . . Throughout the greater part of the year, the prevailing wind is from the south-east, and comes laden with moisture from the Bay of Bengal.' The few hours between sunrise and 9 A.M. form the only period of the day entirely free from clouds, mist, or rain. The average annual rainfall is returned at 120 inches. The rainfall in 1881 was 9 inches below the average. The average mean atmospheric pressure over a period of five years is 23·320. During 1881, the maximum temperature recorded was 76·2° F. in May and July; the minimum by night was 36·5° in December.

The District is not unhealthy, the hills being almost free from endemic disease except goitre. In the *tarái* and the lower valleys malarious fevers occur. Cholera rarely if ever visits the station, and small-pox is disappearing before the introduction of vaccination. During 1881, the charitable dispensaries at Dárjíling station, Karsiáng and Kalimpong, were attended by 183 in-door and 9356 out-door patients. Before the close of that year a second dispensary was opened at Karsiáng.

[For further information regarding Dárjíling District, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. x. (Trübner & Co., London, 1877); *Selections of the Government of Bengal regarding the Tea Industry in Bengal;* Paper by Mr. B. H. Hodgson on the *Koch, Bodo, and Dhimal Tribe;* Dr. Hooker's *Himalayan Journals*, 2 vols. (London, 1854); *Topogra-*

phical Survey conducted by the late Captain H. J. Harman, R.E., and continued by Lieut.-Colonel H. C. B. James, of the Survey Department; the *Bengal Census Report* of 1881; together with the *Annual Administration and Departmental Reports* for the three years ending 1883.]

Dárjíling. — Head-quarters Sub-division of Dárjíling District, Bengal. Area, 792 square miles; villages, 122; occupied houses, 11,801. Population (1881) 65,001, namely, males 36,683, and females 28,318. Hindus numbered 48,172; Muhammadans, 961; Christians, 629; Buddhists, 15,225; and Bráhmos, 14. Proportion of males, 56·43 per cent.; average density of population, 82 persons per square mile; number of houses per square mile, 15; persons per house, 5·5. Dárjíling Sub-division consists of the police circles (*thánás*) of Dárjíling and Kalimpong. It contained in 1883, 3 civil and 3 criminal courts, and a District police numbering 179 officers and men. The *chaukidárí* or village watch system is not in force in the District.

Dárjíling.—Town and administrative head-quarters of Dárjíling District, Bengal, situated in the lower Himálayas. Lat. 27° 2′ 48″ N., long. 88° 18′ 36″ E. The station occupies a narrow ridge, which divides into two spurs, descending steeply to the bed of the Great Ranjít, up whose course the eye is carried to the base of the great snowy mountains. The ridge is very narrow at the top. The valleys on either side are at least 6000 feet deep, forest clad to the bottom, with very few level spots, but no absolute precipice. From the flanks of these valleys innumerable little spurs project, occupied by native clearings. The ridge varies in height from 6500 to 7500 feet above sea-level. Dárjíling was acquired by the English Government in 1835 as a sanitarium, a tract of country 138 square miles in extent being ceded by the Rájá of Sikkim, in return for an allowance of £300 per annum, afterwards raised to £600. The station rapidly increased, and soon became a favourite summer retreat for the officials of Lower Bengal and their families. The Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal ordinarily spends several months of every year in Dárjíling, which is now brought within 24 hours' journey of Calcutta, by the Northern Bengal State Railway, and its continuation, the Dárjíling and Himálayan Railway. Dárjíling is rapidly increasing in favour as a summer resort for visitors and for invalids. A fine building, the Eden Sanitarium, was opened in 1883 for the reception of sick and convalescent, with accommodation for 52 patients. Private building enterprise has increased considerably in the last few years, especially on the property of the Mahárájá of Kuch Behar. A line of pipes has been laid from the Senchál Springs which furnishes the town with an ample supply of good water. New secretariat and other public buildings are in contemplation. Besides the residence of the Lieutenant-Governor and the public offices, the other principal buildings are the Episcopalian

Church, Wesleyan Chapel, Roman Catholic Convent, St. Paul's School, Club, etc. Two gardens, Lloyd's Botanical Garden and the People's Park, are open to the public. A military depôt, consisting of barracks for about 150 men, stands on the hill some 500 feet above the station, and about a mile distant, which is occupied by European invalids during the hot months. The situation, although very bleak, is healthy. The population of the town fluctuates according to the season, but the number was returned by the Census of February 1881 at 7018, namely, Hindus, 4592; Muhammadans, 614; 'others,' 1812; area of station, 3420 acres. This may be called the normal or resident population, but during the hot weather months, from April to October, it is much increased by the influx of visitors from the plains. The area of the municipality formerly coincided with that of the tract originally ceded by the Sikkim Rájá, and comprised about 138 square miles. It is now, however, restricted to the station itself. Municipal income, 1881–82, £5964; expenditure, £5796.

Darkuti.—One of the petty Punjab Hill States under the Government of the Punjab. The Ráná of Darkoti, Rám Singh, is a Rájput. When the Gúrkhas were driven out of the hills, the British Government confirmed the chief in possession of this State, which, owing to its smallness, pays no tribute. The area is 5 square miles. Lat. (centre) 31° 7′ 0″ N., long. 77° 38′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 590. Revenue, £60.

Darmán.—Town in Shakargarh *tahsíl*, Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Population (1881) 1618, namely, 1242 Hindus and 376 Muhammadans; number of houses, 251. A third-class municipality, with a revenue in 1882–83 of £53; expenditure, £56; average incidence of taxation, 8d. per head of population. The town is the seat of a colony of Pahári Mahájans.

Daro.—Village in the Sháhbandar Sub-division, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) about 1000, mainly agricultural. The Pinyári river is here crossed by a masonry bridge of six spans, each 25 feet wide. Police station; *dharmsála*, or rest-house; cattle pound. Has road communication with Mirpur Batora, 8 miles distant, with Belo, and with Bano.

Darod.—Petty State in Jhálawár Division, Káthiáwár Province, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £118; tribute of £36, 12s. is paid to the British Government, and of £5 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Darrang (*Durrung*).—District forming a portion of the upper valley of the Brahmaputra, in the Province of Assam. It lies between 26° 12′ 30″ and 27° 2′ 30″ N. lat., and between 91° 45′ and 93° 50′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Bhutiá, Aka, and Daphla Hills; on the east by the Marámarnai river, separating it from Lakhimpur

District; on the south by the Brahmaputra; and on the west by Kámrúp District. Area, 3418·26 square miles. Population (1881) 273,333 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of TEZPUR, situated near the confluence of the Bhairaví with the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—Darrang consists of a narrow strip of land, shut in between the lower ranges of the Himálayas and the Brahmaputra. Its total length is 126 miles from east to west, with an average width of about 25 miles. Numerous rivers and streams cross it, flowing southwards from the hills; and the general level is broken by a range of low hills, from 200 to 500 feet high, which sweep outwards in a crescent shape from the Bhairaví to the Brahmaputra, covering an area of about 25 square miles. The population of the District is sparse, and the area under cultivation is still very limited. Extensive tracts are overgrown with dense reed and cane jungle, characteristic of the Brahmaputra valley, amid which occur rare patches of rice cultivation. Virgin forests cover a large portion of the region which lies under the northern hills. Forest reserves, from which timber-cutting and *júm* cultivation are carefully excluded, have recently been declared by the Government over an aggregate area of 272 square miles. In 1880–81, the total amount of revenue realized from the direct sale of timber, and from royalties on the sale of timber, amounted to £2454. Wild animals of all kinds abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, buffaloes, bison, and tigers. In 1879, it was found necessary to revise the rates paid for the destruction of wild animals. The following is the present (1883) sanctioned scale for Darrang District:—Tigers, £2; leopards, 10s.; bears, £1; hyænas, 5s. During 1880–81, £152 was paid on this account. Wild elephants occasionally do considerable damage to the crops. The right of capturing these animals has recently been placed under restrictions, and was leased out in 1882–83 for £256. Gold-washing is carried on in several of the hill streams, especially in the Bhairaví. Limestone of an inferior quality is found in the west of the District; and travertine, containing as much as 90 per cent. of lime, has been discovered just beyond the British frontier. Coal, also, is known to exist outside the northern boundary of the District, but not, it is believed, in valuable quantities or of good quality.

The great river of Darrang is the BRAHMAPUTRA, which forms the continuous southern boundary, and is navigable for steamers all the year through. Among its tributaries, the five following are navigable for large native boats:—The Bhairaví, Ghiládárí, Dhaneswari (Jiá Dhansiri), Nonai, and Bar Nadí. These all rise in the mountains beyond the frontier, and flow nearly due south into the Brahmaputra. There are about 26 minor streams, which only become practicable for

small boats during the rains. Some of the rivers, immediately after leaving the hills, sink beneath the sandy soil, and reappear several miles lower down. There are no lakes or artificial watercourses in the District. Two embankments have been made for purposes of cultivation, to restrain the flood-waters of the Brahmaputra and Bar Nadí; and the old roads of the Aham Rájás, known as Ráj Alís, usually run along raised earthen banks.

History.—Darrang District possesses no history apart from Assam generally. Besides sharing in all the vicissitudes of the Province, it has experienced special troubles of its own, owing to the proximity of the wild Bhutiá and Daphla tribes. Archæological evidence and local tradition attest the existence of Hindu civilisation high up the Brahmaputra valley in very early times. The hills encircling the town of Tezpur are still covered with ruins, hidden among the jungle, which reveal the traces of temples and palaces such as could only have been erected by a powerful dynasty. The building materials used were gigantic blocks of granite, which appear to have been supplied by the immediate neighbourhood. These blocks were carefully hewn to form altars, columns, and porticoes, and many of them are profusely ornamented with carvings in basso-relievo, among which the emblems of Siva are conspicuous. It is conjectured, from the appearance of the ruins, that these buildings must have been overthrown by the hand of some invader; and local tradition points to Kálá Pahár, the General of Sulaimán, King of Bengal, as the author of the sacrilege. Another legend is preserved in the Prem Ságar, which relates the battles between Bán Rájá and the god Krishna. Bán Rájá's name is associated with many of the ruins near Tezpur. He was a demi-god, sixth in descent from Brahma, and was the first to introduce the worship of Siva into Assam. After the downfall of the early Hindu kingdom, however that may have been brought about, Darrang, like the rest of Assam, relapsed into primitive barbarism. The Ahams, a wild tribe, of Shan origin, from the Burmese Hills, first entered the valley of the Brahmaputra about the 13th century, and very gradually advanced downwards. The Ahams organized their conquered territory with minute precision, and held their own until the advent of the British. Though they have given their name to the Province, it is surprising to find how small are their present numbers.

But the Ahams, though undisputed masters of the valley, never extended their sway far from the river banks. In the present administration of Darrang District is still to be traced a curious relic of fluctuating jurisdiction. A tract of country extending along the foot of the northern hill ranges is said to have been ceded by the Aham Rájá to the Bhutiás for a period of eight months in each year, in order to afford them the means of cultivating rice and other necessaries, which

they could not raise on their own bleak mountains. In consideration of this grant, the Bhutiás were to pay an annual tribute to the Aham Rájá of articles produced and manufactured in the mountains; while the latter was to retain his jurisdiction over the tract for the remaining four months of the year, from about the middle of June to the middle of October. This arrangement was continued during the few first years after the British conquest of Assam. But in 1840, the claims of the Bhutiá chiefs were commuted for a money payment of £500 a year, which was calculated as the equivalent of the average emoluments they derived from the land. The revenue at present derived by the British Government from the 'debateable' tract amounts to £5183.

The Bhutiás here referred to are commonly known as the Towang Bhutiás, and are independent of the State of Bhután, being directly subject to the Government of Lhásá. They carry on a considerable trade direct with Tibet, and have uniformly manifested a quiet and friendly attitude. Next to the Bhutiás on the east, come the Akas or Hrusso, a small tribe, who used formerly to commit frequent raids on British territory. They receive *posá* or black-mail to the amount of £70 a year. Even so recently as 1883, the Akas, in asserting a claim to a tract of land which had been declared a forest reserve, raided upon British territory, and carried away the native forest officers as hostages into their hills. A military expedition was necessary to punish the offending tribe, and to effect the release of the captives. See article AKAS, vol. I. pp. 135–6. Farther east, again, are the Daphlas, whose native mountains extend along the neighbouring District of Lakhimpur. The Daphlas are a tribe of whom little was known prior to the recent frontier expedition, which was caused by their wanton outrages on British subjects. In the year 1872, the village of Amtolá, occupied by Daphla settlers, was attacked by a strong party of hill Daphlas, and 44 persons were carried off to the mountains. It was ascertained that this raid had no political significance. The object was merely to seize a number of slaves as an equivalent for certain of their own people who had died of disease, said to have been introduced from the plains. The Daphla Hills were forthwith blockaded by a strong force of police, stationed in blockhouses at all the passes. The police were subsequently replaced by military; but this method of pressure was found ineffectual. Accordingly, in the cold season of 1874–75, an armed force entered the hills, and, without encountering any opposition, achieved the release of all the surviving captives.

Population.—In 1840, the population of Darrang was estimated at about 80,000. The first regular Census was taken in 1872, when the population was ascertained to be 236,009. At the last enumeration in 1881, Darrang contained a total population of 273,333, being an increase of 37,324 in the nine years since 1872. The results arrived at

by the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3418 square miles; number of villages, 1672; number of houses, 49,172. Total population, 273,333, namely, 142,418 males and 130,915 females; average density, 79·9 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·49; persons per village, 163; houses per square mile, 14·4; persons per occupied house, 5·5. Classified according to religion, there were:—Hindus, 251,838; Muhammadans, 14,677; Christians, 371; Buddhists, 723; Jains, 27; Bráhmos, 18; hill tribes professing aboriginal religions, 4852. In Darrang, as in the rest of the upper valley of the Brahmaputra, a great proportion of the population are of aboriginal descent, numbering 143,467, although they have now nearly all embraced Hinduism. Of the aboriginal tribes, the most numerous are the Kácháris, numbering 72,200, with their cognate tribe of Rábhás, 15,090. The Kochs number 42,061. The other tribes consist of Ahams, the former rulers of the Province, 3312 in number, with the cognate Chutiyás, 1362; Bhutiás, 723; Daphlas, 339; Gáros, 84; Madahís, 2140; Mikírs, 1315; Mirís, 3113; Santáls, immigrants from Chutiá Nágpur, employed on the tea-gardens, 1728. Of the foregoing tribes, all, with the exception of the Bhutiás, who are Buddhists, and the Daphlas, Mikírs, and Mirís, who practise different forms of aboriginal demon-worship, are returned in the Census Report as Hindus by religion. Of Hindus proper Bráhmans number 8929; Ganaks, an inferior caste of mendicant Bráhmans who practise astrology, number 8798; Kshatris, 724; and Káyasths, 2464. Of the lower castes, by far the most numerous is the Kalitá, 24,460, the ancient priesthood of Assam, who are now admitted to Hinduism as pure Súdras; Katánís or Jugi, silk-weavers, 16,609; Keut or Kewat, fishermen, 13,970; Dom, fishermen, a degraded caste in Bengal, but with high assertions to ceremonial purity in Assam, 9418; Boriá, 3002; Kúrmís, 2086. The Muhammadans are almost without exception of the Sunni sect. They are for the most part comparatively well off, but the religion of Islám has ceased to make further progress in the District by conversion. Of the Christian population, 235 are natives. The Church of England numbers 287 adherents; 33 are Presbyterians, 25 Baptists, and 21 Roman Catholics. The native Christians belong for the most part to the Káchári tribe, among whom is established a Mission of the Church of England. A masonry church has been built, and an annual allowance of £150 is made by Government towards the maintenance of the mission schools. As a class, the native Christian community may be said to be tolerably well off. The Bráhma Samáj has a meeting-house at Tezpur town, established in 1872; but the members consist entirely of immigrant Bengalis, mostly engaged in Government service. Jain traders are settled at Tezpur town and at Nalbári.

As throughout the rest of Assam, the entire population is absolutely rural. Out of 1672 villages in the District, only 51 contain upwards of a thousand inhabitants, while 1299 have less than two hundred, 316 from two to five hundred, and 54 from five hundred to a thousand inhabitants. The largest place in the District is TEZPUR town, with only 2910 inhabitants; next comes the Sub-divisional station of MANGALDAI. Other places of some importance as trading centres, or as containing the residences of wealthy men, are Biswanáth (Bishnáth), Hawála Mohanpur, Nalbári, and Kuruágáon. Generally speaking, the people are well off. Their wants are few, and the land is held on easy terms, subject to an annual re-settlement. Numerous ruins are scattered over the hills in the neighbourhood of Tezpur.

Agriculture.—The one staple harvest of the District is rice, grown in two crops. The *sálí* crop, corresponding to the *áman* of Bengal, sown on low lands and reaped in the winter, furnishes much the largest proportion of the food-supply. The *áus* crop is sown broadcast on high lands, and reaped in the early summer, when the field is again available for a second or cold weather crop of oil-seeds or pulses. Agricultural statistics, which are more trustworthy in Assam than in Bengal, show that the area under rice greatly increased between 1850 and 1866, but has since diminished. In 1880–81, the total cultivated area was returned at 221,864 acres, thus divided:—Rice, 260,671 acres; mustard, 7565; sugar-cane, 1912; *kalái*, 6453; tea, 15,041; and other crops, 31,034 acres. Of the total area returned as under cultivation, 10,193 acres produced more than one crop during the year. The aggregate out-turn of rice, oil-seeds, and pulses, is estimated at nearly 3 million cwts., with a value of £400,000. The land is divided into three classes, paying rent to Government at the following rates, which have remained fixed since 1868:—*Bastí*, or homestead land, on which vegetables, etc. are grown, 6s. an acre; *rupit*, or moist lands, suited for *sálí* rice, 3s. 9d. an acre; *pharinghatí*, for *áus* rice and second crops, 3s. an acre. The out-turn from an acre, whether of *rupit* or *pharinghatí* land, is estimated at 16½ cwts., valued at about £2, 5s. The peasantry are fairly well off, and generally free from debt; their present comfortable condition affords a striking contrast to the miseries from which they were relieved by the expulsion of the Burmese in 1825. At the present day, a laborious and skilful husbandman is able to cultivate 4 acres of *sálí* rice, 1¼ acre of mustard seed, a similar area under pulses, and about one-third of an acre each of sugar-cane and vegetables. Seven acres of land would make a comfortable, fair-sized holding for a cultivator; a small one would consist of three acres of moist and about half an acre of dry land. An ordinary pair of bullocks can cultivate from 5½ to 6 acres. All the cultivators hold their land direct from Government; their tenure is permanent and

transferable, and subject to a moderate rent, which is liable to enhancement from time to time. There are a few exceptions in favour of *lákhiráj* lands, or grants held either rent-free or at a very low rental. Manure is nowhere commonly used. Irrigation is only practised in the tract under the hills inhabited by the Kácháris, who are very industrious in leading the streams through artificial channels over their rice-fields, and frequently combine with one another to effect this operation on a large scale. *Rupit* lands are cultivated continuously with the *sálí* rice crop; but *pharinghatí* lands, which generally bear two crops in the year, are occasionally allowed to lie fallow. There is abundance of cultivable waste in all parts of the District; but the heavy grass jungle and forest with which it is now overgrown would be very expensive to clear. There are no present indications among the people towards the growth of a distinct class of day-labourers, neither possessing nor renting land. Indeed, the tendency appears to be in the opposite direction. Those who have no land hire themselves out by the month as labourers on the tea-gardens, and soon save enough money to buy a pair of bullocks and rent a small patch of land.

The rate of wages and the price of food-grains have both risen about three-fold within the last twenty years. In 1880–81, an ordinary labourer received from 6d. to 8d. a day. Agricultural labourers are paid in kind, and frequently live in the houses of their employers. But labour of all kinds is extremely scarce. The inhabitants have a passion for cultivating their own plots of land, and a short period of work on a tea-garden furnishes them with the capital necessary to purchase a pair of bullocks and the few implements required. In 1881, common rice was selling at 6s. 10d. a cwt.; fine rice, which is usually imported from Bengal, at 8s. 11d. a cwt. The highest prices known to have been reached in Darrang were in 1857–58, when common rice fetched more than £1 a cwt.

Darrang is not exposed to either of the natural calamities of flood or drought, and blight has never been known to have seriously injured the crops. In the event of excessive inundations, compensation would be found in the increased fertility of the uplands; and similarly, if the rainfall were ever to prove deficient, the drying up of the swamps would offer new fields to cultivation. The single famine recorded in Darrang was caused, not by the failure of the crops, but by the invasion of the Burmese in the early years of the present century.

Manufactures, etc.—The only indigenous manufacture in Darrang is that of silk-weaving. The silk is of two kinds, known as *eriá* and *mugá*. The former is the produce of the worm Phalæna cynthia, which is reared almost entirely in-doors, and fed on the leaves of the Ricinus communis or castor-oil plant. The *mugá* worm, or Phalæna saturnia, is

fed on certain forest trees in the open air, but also requires careful tending. The entire manufacture is carried on without capital or division of labour. Each individual spins, weaves, and dyes his own web; yet some of the fabrics attain a high standard of excellence, and are bought up for export by the Márwárí traders. There are minor industries in certain villages of brass-work and pottery. The braziers, called Mariás, form a community by themselves.

The cultivation and manufacture of tea is chiefly carried on by means of European capital and under European supervision. In 1881, there were altogether 122 tea-gardens in Darrang District, managed by 14 European assistants and 138 native officials. The total area under mature plant was 12,123 acres, the out-turn amounting to 4,079,123 lbs. The number of imported labourers employed was 14,007, of whom 3726 were under contract under the Emigration Act.

The external commerce of the District is conducted by means of the Brahmaputra, which is navigable by steamers all the year through. The local trade is in the hands of Márwárí immigrants, chiefly from Bikáner and Jodhpur States. The principal exports are tea, oil-seeds, silk cloth, and miscellaneous forest produce brought in by the hill tribes. The imports consist of cotton and woollen cloth, salt, fine rice, dried fruits, spices, etc. The permanent centres of trade are TEZPUR, MANGALDAI, and BISWANATH. Weekly markets are held in the neighbourhood of the tea-gardens. Annual trading fairs have been instituted in certain villages at the foot of the northern hills, in order to encourage intercourse with the Bhutiás. The most important of these is at Udalgurí, on the north-west frontier. The principal articles brought for sale by the Bhutiás are—ponies, blankets, salt, wax, gold, lac, and musk; in return for which they carry away rice, cotton and silk cloth of native manufacture, and brass-ware. This gathering lasts for three or four weeks. In 1881–82, the total value of the articles interchanged was valued at £31,325, the balance of trade being greatly in favour of the Bhutiás.

Apart from the main highway of the Brahmaputra, means of communication are somewhat defective. Second in importance is the Assam Northern Trunk Road, which runs through the entire length of the District for a distance of 143 miles. There are several minor roads crossing north and south, and an elephant path, or *háthí potí*, skirts continuously the base of the Bhután Hills. The rivers are generally crossed by ferries. The total length of roads in the District is returned at 571 miles, and of navigable rivers at 230 miles.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the net revenue of Darrang District amounted to £66,654, towards which the land contributed £36,503, and opium, £19,158; the expenditure was £26,461, of which £9983 was for the commission of the *mauzádárs* or fiscal officials. In 1881–82,

the net revenue had increased to £88,871, of which the land revenue amounted to £45,951, and the excise to £31,823. The civil expenditure in the same year was £25,225. The land revenue has nearly trebled within the past thirty years, having amounted in 1850 to only £15,668. In 1880–81, there were 2 European covenanted officers stationed in the District, and 10 magisterial and 4 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes the District is divided into 6 *thánás* or police circles. In 1881, the regular police force numbered 290 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £5237. These figures show 1 policeman to every 11·8 square miles of the area, or to every 942 of the population, and an average cost of £1, 10s. 8d. per square mile, or $4\frac{3}{5}$d. per head of population. There is no municipal police in Darrang, and the *chaukídárs* or village watch of Bengal are not found anywhere in Assam proper. The District contains 1 jail at Tezpur Station and 1 Sub-divisional lock-up at Mangaldai. In 1881, the daily average number of prisoners was 203·30, of whom 6·45 were females. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 1346 of the population. The total cost amounted to £1348, or £6, 12s. 3d. per prisoner.

Education does not make such progress in Darrang as in the wealthy Districts of Bengal, but yet some improvement has been exhibited in recent years. In 1856, the total number of schools was 20, attended by 613 pupils. The figures of 1870 show a positive decrease; but by 1880–81, when Sir G. Campbell's reforms had come into operation, the inspected schools had increased to 97, and the pupils to 2655. These figures show 1 school to every 35 square miles, and 7 pupils to every thousand of the population. The Government high school at Tezpur teaches up to the matriculation standard of the Calcutta University. The Census of 1881 returned 1484 boys and 15 girls under instruction, and 2795 adult males and 88 adult females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The normal school at Tezpur is under the management of the English Church Mission.

The District is divided into 2 administrative Sub-divisions, and into 7 *thánás* or police circles, as under—(1) Tezpur Sub-division, containing the police circles of Tezpur, Khariápárá, Chatiá, and Gohpur; and (2) Mangaldai, containing the police circles of Mangaldai, Kaláigáon, and Chatgárí. There are 9 *mahále* or fiscal divisions, corresponding to the *parganás* of Bengal, containing an aggregate of 111 *mauzás* or revenue estates. There is no municipality in the District.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Darrang does not differ from that common to the whole of the Assam valley. The north-east monsoon, which marks the opening of the cold season, sets in about the beginning of November, and lasts till the end of April. It is frequently interrupted in March by heavy winds from the south-west, but the south-west monsoon proper lasts from May to October. The annual

rainfall for the five years ending 1880–81 averaged 77·07 inches at Tezpur and 66·92 inches at Mangaldai.

The prevalent diseases are intermittent fevers—generally quotidian or irregular—dysentery and diarrhœa, goitre, epilepsy. Dyspepsia is said to be common among the numerous class of opium-eaters. Small-pox breaks out almost every year, in consequence of the practice of inoculation. In recent years, cholera has repeatedly manifested itself with extreme epidemic violence, and with most fatal results. In 1874, out of a total of 8061 deaths reported throughout the District, as many as 2997 were assigned to cholera, showing a mortality from this cause alone of 12·6 per thousand. The total mortality for that year was at the rate of 34·1 per thousand, being the highest death-rate recorded in any of the Assam Districts, and more than double the rate in Darrang for the previous year. In 1882, the number of registered deaths was 7840, or at the rate of 28·68 per thousand of the population. A contagious disorder is common among the cattle of Darrang, which is thought to have been introduced by imported buffaloes from Bengal. The chief symptoms are loss of appetite, excessive thirst, high temperature of the body, and watery evacuation. The proportion of deaths among the animals attacked is very high. Two charitable dispensaries afford medical relief to the poor. [For further information regarding Darrang District, see Robinson's *Descriptive Account of Assam* (London, 1841); M'Cosh's *Topography of Assam* (Calcutta, 1837); *Assam Census Report* of 1881; together with the *Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports* for the three years ending 1883.]

Darrangiri.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam; situated in lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 90° 56′ E., on the Someswarí river, near which a fine out-crop of coal strata is to be seen. The coal-field is situated on both sides of the Someswarí river; it is about ten miles in length from west to east, and about six miles in breadth from north to south. Within these limits the coal measures occupy an area of about fifty square miles. The coal in the eastern half is not of a good quality, but that in the western half, covering an area of twenty square miles, gives at least one seam of coal of good quality of a thickness sufficient to be worked profitably. The amount of coal to be obtained from the seam is estimated at 76,000,000 tons.

Darsenda.—*Tahsíl* and *parganá* in Bándá District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KUMHARSIN.

Darsi.—*Zamíndárí táluk*, or Sub-division, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 616 square miles; containing 118 villages; houses, 12,174. Population (1881) 68,164, namely, 34,442 males and 33,722 females. Chief town, DARSI.

Darsi (*Dárische*).—Town in the Darsi *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 48′ N., long. 79° 44′ E., 30 miles

north-west of Ongole. Population (1881) 2311, namely, 1890 Hindus, 189 Muhammadans, and 232 Christians; number of houses, 389. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, Darsi possesses the usual native subordinate establishments, police station, and post-office.

Darwa.—*Táluk* of Wún District, Berár. Area, 1062 square miles; contains 323 villages. Population (1881) 132,788, namely, 68,468 males and 64,320 females, or 125 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 24; persons per house, 5·5. Since 1872, the population has increased by 37,089. Hindus number 124,084, or more than 93 per cent.; Muhammadans, 7804; Jains, 880; Sikhs, 19; and Christian, 1. The agricultural population in 1881 numbered 98,031; cultivated area, 524 square miles; cultivable, but waste, 322; uncultivable waste, 215. Total revenue, £26,923, of which £20,049 was derived from the land. In 1883, the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 102 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 217.

Darwa.—Town and head-quarters of Darwa *táluk*, Wún District, Berár, Central India. Lat. 20° 18′ 30″ N., long. 77° 49′ 0″ E. Situated 24 miles W.S.W. of Yeotmál, the head-quarters town of Wún District, with which it is connected by a metalled road. Darwa lies in a basin surrounded on three sides by hills. Contains a police station, post-office, travellers' bungalow, and school. An ancient town, formerly the seat of one of the Bhonsla chiefs. Municipal revenue (1881), £339; houses, 854; population (1881), 3842.

Darwání.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thánâ*), in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 53′ 15″ N., long. 88° 55′ 15″ E. Seat of an annual fair of considerable importance, at which cattle and horses form the principal articles of sale.

Daryábád.—*Parganá* in Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bádo Sarái, on the east by the Gogra (Ghágra) river, and on the south by Basohri *parganá*. Daryábád is said to be gradually increasing its area, owing to the recession of the Gogra towards the east. The present course of that river is now about 8 miles east of its ancient bank, the intervening ground being comparatively low. Area, 214 square miles, of which 137 are cultivated. Of the 241 villages which comprise the *parganá*, 110 are held under *tálukdárí* and 131 under *zamíndárí* tenure, the principal landholders being Surajbans Kshatriyás. Cultivated area in acres—rice, 26,023; wheat, 23,801; *joár*, 1097; *joár* and *bájra*, 500; sugar-cane, 2063; barley, 5479; gram, 5000; poppy, 802; vegetables, 215; oil-seeds, 400; miscellaneous, 18,434. Population (1881) 66,188 males and 62,456 females. This *parganá* is the head-quarters of the Satnámi sect of Hindus. The founder of the creed, Bába Jagjuván Dás, was born here, and the present religious head of the sect, Bába Jaskaran Dás, is his descendant in the twelfth generation.

Daryábád.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated on the high road from Lucknow to Faizábád (Fyzábád), about 24 miles east of Nawábganj. Lat. 26° 53′ N., long. 81° 36′ E. Founded about 450 years ago by a deputy (*subahdár*) of Sultán Ibráhím Sharki. Formerly the head-quarters of the District, but some years ago the Government offices and courts were transferred to Nawábganj, owing to the unhealthiness of the place, induced by its low swampy situation. Daryábád has since declined in importance; but it contains a few fine houses, the principal being the residence of the *tálukdár* of Rámpur. Population (1881), Hindus, 2896; Muhammadans, 2466; and Jains, 176: total, 5538. Two markets; flourishing Government English school.

Darya Kheri.—Thákurate or Petty State held by Thákur Ranjít Singh as a guaranteed Girasiá, under the Bhopál Agency of Central India. Area, about 6 square miles. The Thákur receives a pecuniary allowance (*tankhá*) of £448 from Gwalior, Dewás, and Bhopál in lieu of former rights over land. He also holds a grant of two villages in Shujáwalpur under the guarantee of the British Government, and pays to the Gwalior Darbár a quit-rent of £107.

Daryápur. — *Táluk*, or Sub-division, of Ellichpur District, Berár. Area, 505 square miles; contains 1 town and 206 villages. Population (1881) 123,109, namely, 63,859 males and 59,250 females, or 244 persons per square mile; number of occupied houses, 23,111; unoccupied, 1342; towns and villages per square mile, ·4; houses per square mile, 48; persons per house, 5·3. Since 1872, the population has increased by 20,306. Hindus number 113,131, or 90 per cent.; Muhammadans, 9473; Jains, 488; Sikhs, 16; and Pársís, 7. The agricultural population number 84,026; cultivated area, 467 square miles; cultivable, but waste, 11; waste, 27. Total revenue, £57,070, of which £48,094 is land revenue. In 1884, the *táluk* contained 7 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 69 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 343.

Daryápur.—Town and head-quarters of Daryápur *táluk*, Ellichpur District, Berár. Lat. 20° 56′ N., long. 77° 22′ 30″ E. Situated about 36 miles south-west of Ellichpur town, on the banks of the Chandra Bhága. Population (1881) 4392, chiefly Kúmbís. The town contains the usual offices of administration, a police station, and 2 schools; several temples and mosques stand outside it.

Dasai.—Town in Gwalior (Sindhiá's territory), the capital of the Dasai *jágír*, under the Bhil or Bhopáwar Agency of Central India; situated 10 miles north of Amjhera and 12 miles from Sirdarpur. The revenue of the *jágír* is £2400, and is a grant by Sindhia to Rájá Dinkar Ráo Raghunáth.

Dasára.—Petty State of Jháláwár division, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 7 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers.

The revenue is estimated at £6000; a tribute of £1296, 16s. is payable to the British Government, and of £2, 6s. as *sukhdi* on account of Ahmadábád. Area, 265 square miles; population (1881) 16,971.

Dásarázupalli.—Village in the Ongole *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 2735; number of houses, 475.

Daska.—*Tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab; but as it has been constituted since 1881, the Census Report gives no statistics of area or population. Revenue in 1883, £22,282. The *tahsíl* is administered by a *tahsíldár*, *munsif*, and an honorary magistrate, who preside over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police stations (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 34 men, with 460 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Daska.—Town in Siálkot District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Daska *tahsíl*. Population (1881) 5525, namely, Muhammadans, 2855; Hindus, 1667; Sikhs, 1000; and 'others,' 3; chiefly engaged in agriculture. Situated in lat. 32° 20′ N., and long. 74° 24′ 6″ E., on the Gujránwála road, 16 miles south-west of Siálkot. The town contains a few well-built houses belonging to bankers and shopkeepers. It has been much improved of late years, and some of its streets have been paved with brick. Its public buildings consist of the *tahsíl*, civil court, police station, post-office, dispensary, Government school, encamping ground for troops. The road from Wazírábád to Gurdaspur *via* Pasrúr, crosses the Gujránwála road at this place. Daska is noted for its manufacture of brass vessels. Forms with the neighbouring village of Kot Daska a third-class municipal union. Revenue (1882–83), £224, or 7¾d. per head of population (5525) within municipal limits.

Daskroi (*Dashkrohí*).—Head-quarters Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency. It stretches round Ahmadábád town for about 30 miles north and south, and 20 miles east and west. Bounded on the north by Baroda territory; east by Mahi Kántha; south by Kaira District; and west by Sánand and Baroda territory. Area, 348 square miles. Population (1881), including the inhabitants of Ahmadábád town, 271,563; dwelling in 1 town and 137 villages, and occupying 56,984 houses. Males number 138,880; females, 132,683. Classified according to religion, there are 219,658 Hindus, or about 80 per cent.; 32,824 Muhammadans; and 19,081 'others,' not specified. The Revenue Survey returned 202,933 acres as occupied land; 135,941 acres as cultivable waste; and 36,002 as uncultivable waste; 98,023 acres are returned as being under tillage. In the year of settlement (1860–61) there were 17,476 holdings with an average of 7¾ acres, paying an average rent of £1, 11s. 3d.

The entire Sub-division, except for a few gentle undulations in the east and south, is a uniform plain. The region is crossed by the Sábarmati, the Khári, and Meshvo rivers. Only in the extreme

south are their waters used for irrigation. In 1877, there were 4083 wells, in addition to 634 ponds and 47 water-lifts. The soil is light, *gorat;* and varies from dry sand to rich loam. With good tillage and watering, the sandiest fields yield a large return to the husbandman. In the loops of land enclosed by the Sábarmati, patches of alluvial land produce the finest sugar-cane and tobacco. Staple crops are millets, *bájra*, *joár*, and rice. In 1878, 1344 acres were under cotton. The Sub-division contains (inclusive of the Ahmadábád courts and head-quarters) 5 civil and 10 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 660 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 520.

Dásna.—Town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 40′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 33′ 55″ E. Situated in the open plain, 23 miles south-west of Meerut, and 1 mile west of the Ganges Canal, a distributary from which irrigates the surrounding lands. Population (1881) under 5000, not returned separately in the Census Report. Founded by Rájá Salársi, a Rájput, in the time of Mahmúd of Ghazní. Formerly contained a large fort, destroyed by Ahmad Sháh in 1760. Religious fair during the *muharram* in honour of a Musalmán saint. Mr. Michel's indigo factory at Masuri employs a large number of workmen. Police outpost and post-office. Hindu fair twice a year. Weekly market held every Saturday.

Daspallá.—Tributary State of Orissa, Bengal. Lat. 20° 10′ 50″ to 20° 35′ N., long. 84° 31′ 45″ to 85° 8′ E. Area, 568 square miles. Population (1881) 41,608. Bounded on the north by Angul, Narsinghpur, and the Mahánadí river, which flows through the picturesque Barmúl gorge and forms an excellent waterway; on the south by the Madras State of Gumsar (Ghumsará); on the east by Khandpárá and Nayágarh; and on the west by Bod. The principal mountain in the State is Goáldes, in the north, 2506 feet high. The chief village is Daspallá, in lat. 20° 18′ 40″ N., long. 84° 56′ 21″ E. The population in 1881 numbered 41,608, consisting of 29,036 Hindus, 24 Muhammadans, and 12,548 belonging to other denominations (namely, non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, etc.). Of the aboriginal races, the Kandhs are the most numerous. Estimated annual revenue, £1700; tribute payable to the British Government, £66. Daspallá State is said to have been founded about 500 years ago by a son of the Rájá of Bod, the present chief, who claims to be a Kshatriya of the Solar race, being the sixteenth in descent. It is divided into two parts: Daspallá proper, lying south of the Mahánadí, the original principality; and Joremuha, a small tract north of the Mahánadí annexed to Daspallá by conquest. The Rájá's military force is returned at 521 men, and his police force at 269. There are 6 schools in the State, one of which is supported by the Rájá, and a post-office.

Dasúya.—Northern *tahsíl* of Hoshiárpur District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 44′ to 32° 5′ N., long. 75° 34′ 15″ to 75° 57′ E. Lies between the Kángra Hills and the Beas (Biás) river, which sweeps round three sides of its boundary line. Area, 384 square miles. Population (1881) 218,644, namely, males 117,947, and females 100,697; average density of population, 570 persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 105,057; Muhammadans, 104,026; Sikhs, 9142; and 'others,' 319. Revenue of the *tahsíl* (1883), £37,161. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, 2 *munsifs*, and an honorary magistrate exercising criminal powers. These officers preside over 3 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 78 men, with 458 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Dasúya.—Town in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Dasúya *tahsíl;* situated 25 miles north-west of Hoshiárpur town, on the road to the Naushahra and Mithál ferries on the Beas (Biás). Lat. 31° 49′ N., long. 75° 41′ 45″ E. Population in 1881, 6248, namely, Muhammadans, 4367; Hindus, 1819; Sikhs, 43; and Jains, 19. The town, with the neighbouring village of Kaithán, forms a third-class municipality. Municipal income in 1882–83, £220; expenditure, £245. Tradition states that the town was founded 5000 years ago, and formed the capital of Rájá Virátha mentioned in the Mahábhárata. There is an old fort to the north of the town, mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbarí.* It was in great part demolished in 1848, but two of its towers still remain. The trade of the town is principally in grain and tobacco. Besides the ordinary Sub-divisional courts and police station, the town contains a Government middle-class school, dispensary, *sarái* or native inn, and a fine tank.

Dátáganj.—*Tahsíl* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 430 square miles, of which 273 are cultivated. Population (1881) 186,815. Land revenue, £22,836; total revenue, £25,610; rental paid by cultivators, £52,062; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 10d.

Dátáganj.—Town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Dátáganj *tahsíl*; 17 miles east of Budáun town. Population (1881) 2442. A small municipal income for the sanitation and watch and ward of the town is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Besides the ordinary Sub-divisional offices and courts, the town contains a *tahsílí* school and dispensary.

Datána.—A guaranteed thákurate or petty chiefship of the Western Málwa Agency of Central India. Receives a sum of £18 as *tankha* from Sindhia.

Dátha.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 26 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £2300, of which £509, 18s. is paid as tribute

to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £29, 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Area, 51 square miles. Population (1881) 9352.

Dathweh-kyauk.—An unnavigable river in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burmah. It rises in the southern slopes of the Sinlan spur, and flows south and west into the Zay, which it joins just before that river enters the Inma lake. The lower portion of its course is through rice-fields; but higher up it flows through forests, producing valuable timber, such as *pyíngado*, *ingying*, *banbweh* (Careya arborea), and *in*.

Dathweh-kyauk.—Village in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 41′ N., long. 95° 34′ 35″ E. Situated on the river of the same name, 20 miles south-east of Prome, and near the great rice tract which occupies the centre of the valley between the Pegu Mountains and the Prome Hills. The inhabitants are mainly agriculturists.

Datia.—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; lying between lat. 25° 34′ to 26° 17′ N., and long. 78° 17′ to 78° 56′ E. Area, 836 square miles. Population (1881) 182,598, namely, Hindus, 174,202; Muhammadans, 8381; Jains, 150. Number of towns and villages, 454; number of houses, 29,396. Bounded on the east by Jhánsi District, and surrounded on all other sides by the State of Gwalior. It came under the supremacy of the British Government with other territories in Bundelkhand, ceded by the Peshwá under the treaty of Bassein in 1802. The ruler at that time was Rájá Paríchhat, with whom a treaty of defensive alliance was concluded in 1804. After the deposition of the Peshwá in 1817, Rájá Paríchhat was rewarded for his attachment to the British Government by the addition of a tract of land on the east of the river Sind, and a new treaty was made with him. He was succeeded by his adopted son, Bijái Bahádur, a foundling, who died in 1857, and was succeeded by his adopted son, Bhawání Singh, the present (1883) ruler. At his accession, however, an illegitimate son, Arjun Singh, disputed the succession, and it was necessary to send a British force for the settlement of the country. Rájá Bhawání Singh is a Bundelá Rájput, and was born about 1845. The revenues are estimated at £100,000. The State pays to Sindhia, through the British Government, £1500 of Nánasháhí currency annually on account of the *parganá* of Nadigáon. The Chief has the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The military force consists of 97 guns, 160 gunners, 700 cavalry, and 3040 infantry.

Datia.—Chief town of Datia State, Bundelkhand, lying on the road from Agra to Ságar (Saugor), 125 miles south-east of the former, and 148 miles north-west of the latter. Lat. 25° 40′ N., long. 78° 30′ E.

Situated on a rocky eminence, surrounded by a stone wall, about 30 feet in height, but incapable of defence against modern artillery. Though composed of narrow and intricate streets, the town presents a flourishing aspect, and contains a large number of handsome houses, the residences of the local aristocracy. Population (1881) 28,346, namely, Hindus, 23,393; Muhammadans, 4948; and 'others,' 5. The Rájá's palace stands in the town, within the walls of a pretty pleasure-garden, planted with avenues of oranges, pomegranates, and other fruit-trees. The wall is pierced by a fine gateway, and surmounted at each corner by embattled towers. Besides the Rájá's pavilion, the gardens enclose an octagonal building surrounded by a reservoir, containing a fountain composed of four elephants, from whose trunks arises a jet of water. Another palace, now untenanted, stands within the city precincts; while a third, also deserted, but remarkable for its great size and strength, as well as for the beauty of its architecture, lies to the west of the town, beyond the walls. A curious cluster of Jain temples, at a distance of some 4 miles, deserves the attention of archæologists. The rocky ground in the neighbourhood of Datia is overgrown with stunted copse, abounding in game; and a small artificial lake lies close to the hill on which the town stands.

Dativre (*Dantivra*).—Seaport in the Máhim Sub-division, Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Ten miles south-east of Máhim. Lat. 19° 17′ N., and long. 72° 50′ E. Near the town is a small ruined fort built probably by the Portuguese. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1878–79, £11,569—viz. exports, £10,738, and imports, £831.

Dattaw. — Stream in British Burma. Rises in the Kyí-ba spur west of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), and falls into that river near Peinthalein. Its bed is sandy and muddy; on its steep banks are found teak, cutch, *ing-yin* (Pentacme siamensis), much used in house-building, *thingan* and *pyin-ma*. The Dattaw is navigable only for a short distance during the rains.

Dattigáon. — Town and *jágír* in Sindhia's territory (Gwalior), Amjhera *parganá*, Central India. The residence of Maháráj Balwant Singh of Amjhera, who derives a revenue of £1600 from the estate, paying a tribute of £375 to Sindhia.

Datt's Bázár (or *Biru*).—Village on the Brahmaputra, in the head-quarters Sub-division of Maimansingh District, Bengal, 37 miles from Nasirábád town. One of the principal marts of the District, carrying on a large trade in jute, etc. with Náráyanganj in Dacca.

Dáúdnagar.—Chief town in Aurangábád Sub-division, Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 2′ 39″ N., long. 84° 26′ 35″ E. Population (1881) 9870, namely, 7831 Hindus, 2035 Muhammadans, and 4 'others;' area of town site, 3285 acres. Situated on the banks of the Son (Soane), and

consisting mainly of miserable crooked lanes and irregular streets, containing numerous hovels. The chief public buildings are the *sarái* or rest-house built by Dáúd Khán in the part of the town named after him, and intended probably for a stronghold; and a small *imámbárá* and a *chautárá*, formerly used for the transaction of business. Manufactures of cloth, coarse carpets, and blankets; river trade with Pátna, which is likely to increase after the opening of the canal close to the town. Gross municipal revenue (1881–82) £222; expenditure, £174. Local police consists of 13 men. Four miles from Dáúdnagar, on the road to Gayá, there is a beautiful temple, the carving of which was executed at Mírzápur.

Dáúdpur.—Depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Trade in rice, paddy, and mustard.

Dáúdzai. — *Tahsíl* of Pesháwar District, Punjab. *See* DOABA DAUDZAI.

Daulatábád (*Deogiri*).—Town and fort in the Nizam's Dominions (Haidarábád), Deccan. Lat. 19° 57′ N., and long. 75° 18′ E.; 10 miles north-west from Aurangábád, 170 miles north-east of Bombay, and 28 north-west of Haidarábád (Hyderábád). Population (1881) 1243. The fortress, also known by the name of Deogiri, has from remote antiquity been the stronghold of the rulers of the Deccan. It consists of a conical rock scarped from a height of 150 feet from the base. The fort has been provided with a counterscarp gallery, and a complete system of countermines; the outer wall is 2¾ miles in circumference; between the wall and the base of the upper fort there are three inner lines of fortifications, to which access is obtained through gates. On the summit of the rock is a small platform, on which are mounted a cannon and flagstaff. A short distance outside the ditch is a minaret 210 feet high, said to have been erected in commemoration of the first conquest of the place by the Muhammadans in 1294. The minaret is in good preservation, and from its summit a fine view of the surrounding country is obtained. Close to the minaret are the ruins of an extensive Jain temple. Near the temple are the ruins of the Chini Mahal (China Palace), where Sultán Ab-ul-Hasan, better known as King Tanasháh, the last of the Golconda sovereigns, was kept a State prisoner by Aurangzeb. The hill on which the fort stands rises almost perpendicularly from the plain to a height of about 600 feet, and is entirely isolated, though commanded by several hills to the south. The moat or ditch is about 30 feet wide, and is crossed by a small stone bridge, near which is a subterranean gallery which winds through the hill until within a short distance of the summit, where the exit is defended by a huge iron plate. The original name of the place under the Hindus was Deogarh (Deogiri). It succeeded Bijápur as the capital of the Yadava kingdom. Little is known of its history before its capture by the

Muhammadans under Alá-ud-dín of the Khilji dynasty, who at the head of a body of 8000 horse appeared before the town in A.D. 1294. After sacking the town, he laid siege to the fort, which after a period of three weeks was, owing to the unexpected nature of the attempt, and to the failure of provisions, surrendered by the Rájá Rámchandra of the Yadava dynasty, which had established itself at Deogiri about the close of the 12th century on the downfall of the Kalachurís, the successors of the Western Chalukyas. Ferishta relates that the terms of peace exacted by Alá-ud-dín were as follows:—That Rámchandra should pay six hundred *maunds* (a *maund* is equal to 80 lbs.) of gold, seven *maunds* of pearls, two *maunds* of jewels, consisting of rubies, diamonds, jaspers, and emeralds; one thousand *maunds* of silver, five thousand pieces of silk and other articles; that he should hand over Ellichpur, then the capital of Berár, with its adjacent districts; and that he should pay a yearly tribute. The capture of the fortress is noteworthy, as this event was the first appearance of the Muhammadans in the Deccan. The new conquest was neither lasting nor untroubled. In 1306, Rámchandra rebelled, and Málik Naib Káfur, a Muhammadan general, was despatched to Deogiri. Rámchandra was taken prisoner and carried to Delhi, where the Sultán treated him with clemency and even honour, and from whence in the end he was sent back to his dominions. Rámchandra was succeeded by his son Sankara, but as Sankara proved hostile, Káfur once more appeared, took the fortress, and put the king to death. When Káfur retired, he left strong garrisons in Deogiri and other Deccan points of vantage; but immediately after his withdrawal, Harpala, who had married a daughter of Rámchandra, rose in revolt. A Muhammadan army again appeared; Harpala was defeated and captured; and after being flayed alive by order of Mubárik Khán, the new Sultán, his skin was hung over the gate of Deogiri. A succession of favourites of the Delhi Sultán now ruled in Deogiri; until in 1325, Muhammad Tughlak Sháh, the son of Ghiyás-ud-dín, ascended the throne. In 1338, Muhammad Tughlak conceived the idea of making Deogiri the capital of the Muhammadan Empire; and having re-christened the fort Daulatábád, or 'The Fortunate City,' issued stringent orders for the evacuation of Delhi and for the immediate removal of the population to Deogiri. The distance from Delhi to Deogiri is 800 miles. Delhi, called by an annalist of that time the 'Envy of the World,' became deserted at the order of the cruel and eccentric Emperor. The story runs that a paralytic and a blind man alone were found in the silent streets when the evacuation was over. The paralytic was blown from the mouth of a culverin; the blind man was dragged from Delhi to Deogiri, a march of forty days; but 'the poor wretch fell in pieces during the journey, and only one leg reached Daulatábád.' Deogiri, however, rose into

importance. Ibn Batuta, a native of Tangiers, visited Daulatábád when Tughlak had his court there, and compares it for size and splendour to the former Delhi. Not once but twice did Deogiri gain at the expense of Delhi, and wholesale migrations were ruthlessly commanded and as ruthlessly enforced. On the second occasion, the ravages of a famine were added to the disasters of a long and painful journey. In a few years, the dynasty of Tughlak was followed, in this region, by the Bahmani kings of Gulbarga and chiefs of Bider. The Bahmanis held Daulatábád until they became extinct in 1526. The Bahmanis were succeeded by the Nizam Shahi kings of Ahmednagar, who held the fortress until their kingdom fell beneath the sway of the Mughal. After the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, the fortress of Daulatábád, with other Mughal possessions in the Deccan, passed into the hands of Asaph Jah, the founder of the Nizam's dynasty, in whose family they have remained ever since. Daulatábád has not been garrisoned as a fortress for many years. At present there is a force of about 100 military police stationed there. The gardens for which the place was once famous have nearly all disappeared.

Daulat Khán.—Village and formerly the head-quarters of Dakshin Sháhbázpur Sub-division, Bákarganj District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 38′ N., and long. 90° 50′ 30″ E. Principal article of export, areca-nut. The village was destroyed and the inhabitants nearly all drowned by a cyclone and storm wave in October 1876.

Daulatpur. — Village in Naushahro Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 26° 30′ 30″ N., and long. 68° 0′ 15″ E. on the trunk road between Haidarábád and Rohri. Population insignificant, and mainly agricultural. The Muhammadans belong to the Hotpotra tribe; the Hindus are chiefly Lohános. Rest-house for travellers.

Dauleswaram.—Town, Godávari District, Madras Presidency.—*See* DOWLAISHVARAM.

Daundia Khera.—*Parganá* in Purwa *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Ghátampur and Bhagwantnagar *parganás*, on the east by Sareni, on the south by the Ganges, and on the west by Ghátampur *parganá*. Conquered from the Bhars by the Bais clan of Rájputs, who here first laid the foundation of their future greatness. They rapidly extended their dominions, and their descendants now hold considerable possessions in Rái Bareli and Bára Bánki. Area, 64 square miles, of which 35 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £5327, or an average of 2s. 6d. per acre. Principal autumn crops—cotton, rice, millet, *urd*, *múg*, vetches, etc.; spring crops—wheat, barley, gram, *arhar*, oil-seeds, sugar-cane. Population (1881) 33,467, namely, 16,397 males and 17,070 females. Of the 104 villages comprising the *parganá*, 26 are held under *tálukdárí*, 34 under

zamíndárí, and 44 under *pattidárí* tenures. Six bi-weekly markets are held for the sale of country produce.

Dausa.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, Central India. Population (1881) 7384, namely, Hindus, 6057; Muhammadans, 1139; and unspecified, 188. Station on the Rájputána State Railway, distant about 38 miles east from Jaipur. Dausa was once the capital of the State before Amber was wrested from the Minas. It stands on the slope of a large isolated flat hill nearly four miles in circumference, fortified with a loopholed wall with bastions of considerable strength. The town contains numerous Hindu temples and ancient edifices fast falling to decay. At the close of the Mutiny, Tantia Topi, the famous rebel leader, was caught between two columns of British troops in the neighbourhood of Dausa, when a battle was fought under its walls. Staging bungalow, dispensary, and post-office. The Agra and Ajmere trunk roads intersect at Dausa.

Davangere.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore State, Southern India. Area (including Harihar *táluk*, incorporated in 1875), 662 square miles; land revenue (1882), exclusive of water-rates, £15,591. The *táluk* is watered by the Tungabhadra, which runs along the western boundary. The surface is a wide, level, and dreary plain. Black soil prevails in the west, and stony or gravelly soil in the east. Chief crops, *jola*, cotton, and *ragi*. Rice and sugar-cane are grown to a small extent. The dynasty of the Kadambas were probably the earliest Hindu occupants of the country. The Chálukya and Ballála dynasties followed, the seat of government being at Huchangi-Durga. The Yadavas of Deogiri were in possession when that dynasty declined on the advent of the Muhammadans in the 13th century. After falling to the Vijayanagar Empire and the Bednur chiefs, Davangere *táluk* eventually became part of Haidar Alí's possessions. Noted for the manufacture of finely-woven *kamblis* or woollen blankets, which have been known to sell for £20 or £30 a-piece. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court; police stations (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 76 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 294.

Davangere.—Town in Shimoga District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 14° 28′ N., and long. 75° 59′ E.; 40 miles north-west of Chitaldrúg. Population (1881) 6362, namely, 5584 Hindus, 763 Muhammadans, and 15 Christians. Originally an obscure village, Davangere became a centre of trade under the patronage of Haidar Alí, who gave it as a *jágír* to a Maráthá chief. The merchants are mostly Sivaite Bhaktas or Lingáyats. Their most valuable business is the carrying trade between Wállájá-pet in North Arcot and the neighbourhood of Ságar and Nagar. Exports—areca-nut, pepper, and *kamblís* or country blankets.

Dávasi-betta.—Peak on the Bráhmagiri Hills, Mysore.

David, Fort St. (Native name, *Thevanapatnam* or *Tegnapatam*).—A ruined fort in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 11° 44′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 49′ 30″ E., 100 miles south of Madras, and 1½ miles north of Cuddalore, of which it may be called a suburb. It was purchased from the Maráthás in 1690, and was included in the *kaul* of that year, by which Cuddalore was granted to the Company. All the land round the fort, to the distance of a 'randome shott' fired on every side, was included in the purchase. It was christened 'Fort St. David,' perhaps by its Welsh Governor M. E. Yale; and from 1746 to 1752 it replaced Fort St. George as the chief settlement on the Coromandel coast. (*See* CUDDALORE.) Upon the capitulation of Madras to the French under Bourdonnais in 1746, the Company's agent at Fort St. David assumed the general administration of British affairs in the south of India, and successfully resisted an attack by Dupleix. Clive was appointed Governor in 1756. In 1758, the French, under M. Lally, captured and dismantled the fort while Clive was serving in Bengal, but sufficiently restored it in 1783 to withstand an attack by General Stuart. The ruined houses on the ramparts are still interesting, and some parts of the fort are in good preservation. Subterranean passages appear to have run completely round under the glacis, thus forming a safe means of communication for the garrison; while, at short intervals, other galleries striking off at right angles, and terminating in powder chambers, served as mines. At the south-east corner, the gallery ran down to the edge of the sea, while on the other three sides the fort was protected by the river Pennár and two canals. The ruins form a recognised landmark for mariners.

Dawá.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces, lying to the north of the Great Eastern Road, and about 30 miles north-east of Bhandárá. Population (1881) 4997, chiefly Gonds and Halbás, dwelling in 12 villages, on an area of 26 square miles, of which 7 square miles are cultivated. Dawá and Kor Seoní, the only large villages, both possess indigenous schools, and the latter contains a strong colony of Korís. The chief is a Halbá. Dawá village is situated in lat. 21° 11′ N., and long. 80° 13′ E.

Dawer.—Town in Merwára, Ajmere-Merwára Division, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 26′ N., long. 73° 51′ E. Situated at the extreme south of Merwára, at the head of the Dawer pass into Jodhpur. Police station, school, and post-office.

Dawna. — Range of mountains forming the eastern boundary of AMHERST DISTRICT, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. This chain starts from the Múleh-yit Hill (5500 feet high) in the main range, in lat. 16° 5′ 45″ N., long. 98° 42′ 3″ E., and extends north-west for 200 miles, dividing the waters of the Haung-tharaw and Hlaing-bhweh rivers from those of the Thaung-yin. The general

appearance of the range is that of a wooded plateau of laterite cut up by drainage into ridges. At places the underlying rocks project into the bed of the Thaung-yin, indicating volcanic agency. Large areas on the Dawna Hills are covered with evergreen forests, containing many varieties of valuable timber.

Dayá (‘*The River of Mercy*’).—The western distributary of the waters of the KOYAKHAI river, in Orissa, through Purí District into the Chilká Lake. Subject to disastrous floods, which in the rainy season burst the banks, and sometimes desolate hundreds of square miles. In the dry weather, a series of long shallow pools, amid expanses of sand. Fall per mile at section half-way between Cuttack city and the sea, 1·7 feet; mean depth of section, 16·78 feet; estimated discharge, 33,100 cubic feet per second. Thirty-six breaches were made in its embankment in 1866.

Dayang or **Doyong.**—River in Assam, forming in part the eastern boundary between the Nágá Hills District and the unexplored country occupied by the independent Nágás. It rises in the prolongation of the Bárel range which runs through the Nágá Hills, and divides that District from Manipur State, its source being between the lofty peaks called Khurrho and Kopamedza. It ultimately falls into the Dhaneswari (Dhansiri) river, a short distance above Golághát, in lat. 26° 26′ N., and long. 93° 58′ E. Navigable by small boats during the rainy season as high as its junction with the Dihinggján.

Debar.—Lake in Udaipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána, Central India. Situated about 30 miles south-east of Udaipur town, the centre lying in lat. 24° 18′ N., and long. 74° 4′ E. It is formed by a dam entirely made of massive stone, built across a perennial stream, where it issues through a gap in the surrounding hills. This dyke is called *Jai Samand*, after Ráná Jai Singh, by whom it was constructed A.D. 1681. The length of Lake Debar from east to west is 8 or 10 miles, and its average breadth about a mile, with a circumference of about 30 miles; elevation above sea-level, 960 feet. Its northern shore is dotted with picturesque fishing hamlets, and its surface with small wooded islands, adding greatly to the beauty of perhaps one of the largest artificial sheets of water in the world.

Debhátá.—Village and municipality in Maihátí *parganá*, Khulná District, Bengal; situated on the river Jamuná. Lat. 22° 33′ 30″ N., long. 89° 0′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 5514, namely, Hindus, 4002; and Muhammadans, 1512; area of town site, 2400 acres. Municipal income (1881–82), £336; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1d. per head of municipal population. Large trade in lime produced from burnt shells.

Debi Pátan.—Village with temples and large religious fair, in Gonda District, Oudh. Lat. 27° 32′ 8″ N., long. 82° 26′ 30″ E. Stated to be

probably one of the oldest seats of the Sivaite cultus in Northern India. The earliest legend connects it with Rájá Karna, son of Kunti, the mother of the three elder Pándavas by the Sun-god, and hero of the impenetrable cuirass, who, abandoned in his cradle on the Ganges, was adopted by Adirath, the childless King of Anga. Brought up at the court of Hastinápur, Karna was refused by Droná the arms of Brahma, which, however, he eventually obtained from Parasuráma by faithful service at his retreat on the Mahendra mountain. In after life, he attended Duryodhana to the *Swayamvara*, described in the Mahábhárata, and, having taken a prominent part in the great war, was finally granted the city of Malini by Jarásindhu, the Sivaite King of Magadha, over which he reigned as a tributary to Duryodhana. The ruins of an ancient fort, once occupying the site of the present temple, and an adjoining tank, are popularly ascribed to this legendary monarch. In the middle of the 2nd century A.D., Vikramáditya, the Bráhminist king, who restored the sacred city of Ajodhyá on the decline of Buddhism, erected a temple on the site of the ancient fort. This in its turn fell into ruins; and another was built on the same spot at the end of the 14th or beginning of the 15th century, by Ratan Náth, the third in spiritual descent from Gorakh Náth, the deified saint whose worship is spread all over the Nepál valley. As far as can be judged from the remains, this temple must have been of considerable size, adorned by profuse sculptures, and full of stone images of Siva and Devi in their various forms. For some centuries, the temple was a great resort for pilgrims, chiefly from Gorakhpur and Nepál, until its importance attracted the attention of the iconoclastic Aurangzeb, one of whose officers slew the priests, destroyed the temple and images, and defiled the holy places. The temple was soon afterwards restored, but on a smaller scale, and still exists. A large religious-trading fair, lasting for about ten days, and attended by about 100,000 persons, is held here each year. The principal articles of commerce are—hill ponies, cloth, timber, mats, *ghí*, iron, cinnamon, etc. During the fair, large numbers of buffaloes, goats, and pigs are daily sacrificed at the temple.

Deccan (*Dakshin*, 'The South').—The Deccan, in its local acceptation, signifies only the elevated tract situated between the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Kistna (Krishna) rivers, but it is generally and properly understood to include the whole country south of the Vindhya mountains, which separate it from Hindustán proper. In its larger sense, therefore, it comprehends the valley of the Narbadá, and all southward —the belt of lowland that fringes the coast, as well as the triangular table-land, the sides of which are formed by the Eastern and Western Gháts, and the base of the Sátpura range of the sub-Vindhyas. On the western side, this table-land descends seaward by a succession of terraces, the Gháts throughout averaging 4000 feet in height above the

sea, and terminating abruptly near Cape Comorin, the extreme southern point of the peninsula, at an elevation of 2000 feet. From here, following the coast-line, the Eastern Gháts commence in a series of detached groups, which, uniting in about lat. 11° 40′ N., run northward along the Coromandel coast, with an average elevation of 1500 feet; and join the main ridge, which crosses the peninsula in lat. 13° 20′ N. They terminate in nearly the same latitude as their western counterpart. The Vindhyan range, running across the north of the Deccan, joins the northern extremities of the two Gháts, and thus completes the peninsular triangle. The eastern side of the enclosed table-land being much lower than the western, all the principal rivers of the Deccan—the Godávari, Kistna, Pennár (Ponnaiyar), and Káveri (Cauvery)—rising in the Western Gháts flow eastward, and escape by openings in the Eastern Gháts into the Bay of Bengal. Between the Gháts and the sea on either side, the land differs in being, on the east, composed in part of alluvial deposits brought down from the mountains, and sloping gently; while on the west, the incline is abrupt, and the coast strip is broken by irregular spurs from the Gháts, which at places descend into the sea in steep cliffs.

Geologically, the Deccan table-land presents a vast surface of hypogene schists, penetrated and broken up by extraordinary outbursts of plutonic and trappean rock; varied on the Western Gháts by laterite; on the eastern by laterite, sandstones and limestones; and in the valley of the Káveri by granite. To the north-west, this schistoid formation disappears, emerging occasionally from under one of the largest sheets of trap in the world. Underlying this surface throughout, is a granite floor; while in places overlying it are, in the following order, gneiss, mica and hornblende schists, clay-slate, marble—all destitute of organic remains—together with fossiliferous limestones, varieties of clay and sand rocks. Through all these aqueous deposits, the volcanic trap thrusts itself. Two rocks, characteristic of the Deccan, are found capping the trap—viz. laterite, an iron-clay, and *regar* known in its disintegrated state as 'black cotton-soil.' The latter is remarkable for its retentiveness of moisture, and for its fertility.

Little is known of the history of the Deccan before the close of the 13th century. Hindu legends tell of its invasion by Ráma, and archæological remains bear witness to a series of early dynasties, of which the Dravida, Chola, and Andhra are the best known. Continuous history commences with the Muhammadan invasion of 1294–1300 A.D., when Alá-ud-dín, the Khilji Emperor of Delhi, conquered 'Mahárashtrá,' 'Telingána,' and 'Karnáta.' In 1338, the reduction of the Deccan was completed by Muhammad Tughlak; but a few years later, a general revolt resulted in the establishment of the Muhammadan Báhmani dynasty and the retrogression of Delhi supremacy beyond the Narbadá.

The Báhmani dynasty subverted the Hindu kingdom of Telingána (1565), and (at the battle of Tálikot in the same year) the great Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar or 'Karnáta.' A few years later, it itself began to disintegrate, and was broken up into the five Muhammadan kingdoms of Bijápur, Ahmadnagar, Golconda, Bídar, and Berár. The two last became extinct before 1630; the other three were successively restored to the Delhi Empire by the victories of Sháh Jehán and his son Aurangzeb. The Deccan was thus for a second time brought under the Delhi rule, but not for long. The Maráthás in 1706 obtained the right of levying tribute over Southern India. Their leader, concentrating his strength in what is now the Bombay Presidency, founded the Satára dynasty, which afterwards resigned all real power to the Peshwá of Poona. Another usurper, rallying the southern Muhammadans round him, established the Nizámati of Haidarábád (Hyderábád). The remainder of the imperial possessions in the Deccan was divided among minor chiefs, who acknowledged the supremacy of the Peshwá or the Nizám, according as they were north or south of the Tungabhadra respectively. Mysore, generally tributary to both, became eventually the prize of Haidar Alí; while in the extreme south, the Travancore State enjoyed, by its isolated position, uninterrupted independence. Such was the position of affairs early in the 18th century. Meanwhile, Portugal, Holland, France, and Great Britain had effected settlements on the coast; but the two former on so small a scale that in the wars of the Deccan they took no important part. The French and English, however, espoused opposite sides; and the struggle eventually resulted in establishing the supremacy of the latter. The Deccan is to-day represented by the British Presidency of Madras and part of Bombay, together with Haidarábád (Hyderábád), Mysore, Travancore, and other Native States.

Dedán.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 11 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £3000, of which £295, 12s. is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Area, 30 square miles; population (1881) 5437.

Dedarda.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £410, of which £10, 6s. is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Deeg (*Dig*).—Town and fortress in Bhartpur State, Rájputána.—*See* DIG.

Deesa (*Dísa*). — British cantonment in Pálanpur State, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DISA.

Degám (*Dehegám*).—Seaport in the Jámbusar Sub-division, Broach

District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 22° 11′ N., and long. 72° 39′ E., on the left bank of the Máhi river, about a mile from the Gulf of Cambay, and 18 miles north-west of Jámbusar town. Population (1881) about 2000; average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1871–72, £14,108, viz. exports, £5135, and imports, £8973. Mention is made of Degám as a seaport of Broach in the *Ain-i-Akbari.*

Degh.—River in Jammu (Jummoo) State, and in Siálkot, Lahore, and Montgomery Districts, Punjab. Formed by the union of two streams at Parmandal, in Jammu, both of which take their rise in the outer Himálayan ranges. Enters British territory near the village of Lehri-Kalán in Siálkot, passes into Lahore District, and finally joins the Rávi in Montgomery District in lat. 31° 2′ N., long. 73° 24′ E. The Degh is a river of the lower slopes, and consequently depends entirely for water-supply upon the local rainfall; but its channel in the upper portion never runs dry. In Siálkot District, a fringe of alluvial land lines the bank, and the current shifts constantly from side to side of the wide valley; but artificial irrigation is only practised by means of Persian wheels in a few isolated spots, where the banks rise somewhat higher than usual above the river bed. Large areas, however, benefit by the silt deposited from the summer floods. At Tapiála, in Lahore District, the Degh divides into two branches,—the western of which is only full of water during the rainy season,—and these join again near the village of Dhengá. Below Udeheri, irrigation can be effected by the natural flow of the water, the banks having subsided almost to the river's edge. Excellent rice grows upon the lands submerged by the inundations. In Montgomery District, the Degh again flows between high banks, but still contains sufficient water for irrigation. Its course in this portion of its course is remarkably straight, and it presents all the appearance of an artificial canal. So much water is withdrawn for agricultural purposes during its upper course, that the bed not unfrequently runs dry by the time it reaches Montgomery District. Several bridges span the Degh, notably an ancient one of very curious construction, at the point where it passes from Siálkot into Lahore, besides two at Pindi Dás and Hodiál, erected by the Emperor Jahángír.

Dehej.—Seaport in the Wágra Sub-division, Broach District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 42′ 45″ N., and long. 72° 38′ 30″ E., on the right bank of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), about 3 miles from the sea, and 26 miles west of Broach. Houses, 618. Population (1881) about 2000. The port, though convenient of approach, does not admit of boats of more than 55 tons burthen. In 1804 it was closed, and opened again in 1819. Dehej was formerly the chief town of a fiscal division of 12 villages, which first came under British rule in 1780. This tract was ceded to the Maráthás in 1783, and recovered in 1818 on the final overthrow of the Peshwá's power. Mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbarí.*

Dehli.—Division, District, and City, Punjab.—*See* DELHI.

Deh-peh.—Lake in Okepo township, Henzada District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; situated near the foot of the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yoma hills, covering an area of nearly a square mile. Supplied principally by the drainage from the neighbouring hills; during the rains it has a depth of 9 feet, but in the dry season of only 1 or 2 feet.

Dehra.—*Tahsíl* in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the whole of the eastern and western Dúns. Area (1882) 715 square miles, of which 78 are cultivated; population (1881) 98,953; land revenue, £3850; total Government revenue, £4721; rental paid by cultivators, £14,393; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2d. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 8 criminal courts, with 14 *thánás* or police circles. Strength of regular police, 196 men, besides 53 town police and 106 village watchmen.

Dehra.—Town, cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 19′ 59″ N., and long. 78° 5′ 57″ E. Prettily situated in the midst of a mountain valley, at an elevation of more than 2300 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 18,959, namely, Hindus, 13,307; Muhammadans, 4801; Jains, 88; Christians, 711; and 'others,' 52. Area of town site, 2315. Founded by Guru Rám Rái, who settled in the Dún at the end of the 17th century. His temple, a handsome building in the style of Jahángír's tomb, forms the chief architectural ornament of the town. The native city also contains a *tahsílí*, police station, jail, and schools. The European quarter lies to the north, and has a fixed English population of some 600 persons, being one of the largest in the North-Western Provinces. To the west stand the cantonments of the 2nd Gúrkha Rifles, or Sirmúr Battalion. English Church, Roman Catholic and Presbyterian chapels; dispensary, which in 1883 relieved a total number of 16,263 patients; post-office; head-quarters of Trigonometrical Survey. A large and successful mission of the American Presbyterian Church takes a prominent part in education. Municipal revenue (1883), £951, of which £599 was derived from taxation; incidence of taxation, 1s. per head of municipal population.

Dehra Dún.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 57′ and 30° 59′ N. lat., and between 77° 37′ 15″ and 78° 22′ 45″ E. long., with an area of 1193 square miles, and a population (1881) of 144,070 persons. Dehra Dún forms the northern District of the Meerut (Merath) Division. It is bounded on the north by Independent Garhwál, on the west by Sirmúr and Ambála (Umballa) District, on the south by Sahéranpur, and on the east by British and Independent Garhwál. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of DEHRA.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Dehra Dún consists of two distinct

portions—the double valley of Dehra proper, and the outlying mountain tract of Jaunsár Báwar. It projects northward from the alluvial uplands of the Doáb, like an irregular triangle, towards the sources of the Jumna (Jamuná) and the main range of the Himálayas. To the south, the Siwálik hills, a mass of Himálayan *débris*, shut off the District from the level and fertile plain below. Between these hills and the great mountain chain, whose farthest outliers they form, lie the two valleys known as the Eastern and Western Dúns; the former sloping down toward the stream of the Ganges, while the latter descends by wooded undulations to the bed of its principal confluent, the Jumna (Jamuná). The scenery of these mountain dales can hardly be surpassed for picturesque beauty even among the lovely slopes of the massive chain to which they belong. The perennial streams nourish a fresh and luxuriant vegetation, whilst the romantic hills to the south and the sterner mountains on the north give an exquisite variety to the landscape. A connecting ridge, which runs from north to south between the two systems, forms the watershed of the great rivers, and divides the Eastern from the Western Dún. The Ganges, passing between this District and Garhwál, pours rapidly over beds of boulder, through several channels, encircling jungle-clad islets, and debouches at length upon the plains at Hardwár. The Jumna sweeps round the whole south-western boundary, and reaches the level uplands near Bádsháh Mahál, in Sahάranpur District, an ancient hunting-seat of the Delhi Emperors. Their tributaries have little importance, except for artificial irrigation. When the District first passed under British rule, remains of ancient dams, tanks, and canals studded its surface; but these works had fallen completely out of use during the anarchic period of Sikh and Gúrkha incursions. Our officers at once turned their attention to the restoration of the ancient channels, or the construction of others; and a number of diminutive but valuable irrigation canals now traverse both valleys in every direction, spreading cultivation over all available portions of their rugged surface. North of the Dún proper, the massive block of mountains known as Jaunsár Báwar fills in the space between the valleys of the Tons on the west and the Jumna on the east and south. The latter river, bending sharply westward from the Garhwál boundary, divides this northern tract from the Dún, and unites with its tributary the Tons near the Sirmúr frontier. Jaunsár Báwar consists of a confused mass of rocks, evidently upheaved by volcanic action. Forests of deodara, oak, and fir still clothe large spaces on the hill-sides; but cultivation can only be carried on by means of terraces cut along the mountain slopes, and artificially irrigated by dams upon the numerous minor streams. The wild elephant ranges over the Siwálik chain; while tigers, leopards, sloth bears, spotted or other deer, and monkeys abound in the remoter jungles. Wild elephants

occasionally do considerable damage to the crops, but their capture is regulated by Government rules. Among game birds may be mentioned the black and grey partridge, pea-fowl, floriken, snipe, woodcock, pheasant, etc. Birds of prey include several varieties of eagle, vulture, kite, hawk, etc. The rivers abound in fish, the *mahsír*, a species of carp, being commonly caught from 40 to 60 pounds in weight, and frequently of a larger size. The smaller streams swarm with trout, *sál*, *rohi*, etc. Crocodiles, both of the snub-nosed and bottle-nosed varieties, are common, as is also a repulsive species of fresh-water shark.

History.—In the earliest ages of Hindu legend, Dehra Dún formed part of the mythical region known as Kedárkúnd, the abode of the great god Siva, whose sovereignty is still commemorated in the name of the Siwálik hills. Many generations later, according to the most ancient myths of the Aryan settlers, the valley became bound up with the two great epics of the Rámáyaná and Mahábhárata. Hither came Ráma and his brother, to do penance for the death of the demon-king Rávana; and here sojourned the five Pándava brethren, on their way to the inner recesses of the snowy range, where they finally immolated themselves upon the sacred peak of Mahá Panth. Another memorable legend connects the origin of the little river Suswá with the prayers of 60,000 pigmy Bráhmans, whom Indra, the rain-god, had laughed to scorn when he saw them vainly endeavouring to cross the vast lake formed by a cow's footprint filled with water. The indignant pigmies set to work, by means of penance and mortifications, to create a second Indra, who should supersede the reigning god; and when their sweat had collected into the existing river, the irreverent deity, alarmed at the surprising effect of their devotions, appeased their wrath through the good offices of Brahma. Traditions of a snake, Bámun, who became lord of the Dún on the summit of the Nágsidh Hill, seem to point towards a period of Nágá supremacy. The famous Kálsi stone, near Haripur, on the right bank of the Jumna, inscribed with an edict of the Buddhist Emperor Asoka, may mark the ancient boundary between India and the Chinese Empire. It consists of a large quartz boulder, standing on a ledge which overhangs the river, and is covered with the figure of an elephant, besides an inscription in the ordinary character of the period. Hwen Thsang does not mention any cities which can be identified as lying within the present District; and tradition asserts that it remained without inhabitants until the 11th century, when a passing caravan of Banjárás, struck with the beauty of the country, permanently settled on the spot.

Authentic history, however, knows nothing of Dehra Dún till the 17th century, when it formed a portion of the Garhwál kingdom. The town of Dehra owes its origin to the heretical Sikh Guru, Rám Rái, a Hindu anti-pope, who was driven from the Punjab and the Sikh apostolate

by doubts as to the legitimacy of his birth, and obtained recommendations from the Emperor Aurangzeb to the Rájá of Garhwál. His presence in the Dún shortly attracted numerous devotees, and the village of Gurudwára, or Dehra, grew up around the saint's abode. Rájá Fateh Sáh endowed his temple, a curious building of Muhammadan architecture, with the revenue of three estates. The Guru possessed the singular and miraculous power of dying at will, and returning to life after a concerted interval; but on one occasion, having mistaken his reckoning, he never revived, and the bed on which he died still forms a particular object of reverence to the devout worshippers at his cenotaph. Monuments of earlier date, erected by one Ráni Karnávati, still exist at Nuwádá. Fateh Sáh died soon after the arrival of Rám Rái, and was succeeded (1699) by his infant grandson, Partáp Sáh, whose reign extended over the greater part of a century. But the flourishing condition of his domain soon attracted the attention of Najíb Daulá, governor of Saháranpur, who crossed the Siwáliks with a Rohilla army in 1757, and occupied the Dún without serious opposition. Under Najíb Khán's benevolent and enlightened administration, the District rose to an unexampled degree of wealth and prosperity. Canals and wells irrigated the mountain-sides, Muhammadan colonists brought capital to develop the latent resources of the soil; and mango topes, still standing amid apparently primeval forest, bear witness even now to the flourishing agriculture of this happy period. But Najíb's death in 1770 put an end to the sudden prosperity of the Dún. Henceforth a perpetual inundation of Rájputs, Gújars, Sikhs, and Gúrkhas swept over the valley, till the once fertile garden degenerated again into a barren waste. Four Rájás followed one another on the throne; but the real masters were the turbulent tribes on every side, who levied constant black-mail from the unfortunate cultivators.

Meanwhile, the Gúrkhas, a race of mixed Nepálí origin, were advancing westward, and reached at last the territories of Garhwál. In 1803, Rájá Pardumán Sáh fled before them from Srínagar into the Dún, and thence to Saháranpur, while the savage Gúrkha host overran the whole valley unopposed. Their occupation of Dehra Dún coincided in time with the British entry into Saháranpur, and the great earthquake of 1803 proved the miraculous harbinger of either event. The Gúrkhas ruled their new acquisition with a rod of iron, so that the District threatened to become an absolute desert. Under the severe fiscal arrangements of the Gúrkha governors, slavery increased with frightful rapidity, every defaulter being condemned to lifelong bondage, and slaves being far cheaper in the market than horses or camels. From this unhappy condition, the advent of British rule rescued the feeble and degraded people.

The constant aggressions of the Gúrkhas against our frontier com-

pelled the Government to declare war in November 1814. Dehra was immediately occupied, while our forces laid siege to the strong hill fortress of Kálanga, which fell after a gallant defence, with great loss to the besieging party. The remnant of its brave garrison entered the service of Ranjít Singh, and afterwards died to a man in battle with the Afgháns. A resolution of Government, dated 17th November 1815, ordered the annexation of our new possession to Sahāranpur; while the Gúrkhas, by a treaty drawn up in the succeeding month, formally ceded the country. The organization of the District on a British model proceeded rapidly; and in spite of an ineffectual rising of the disaffected Gújars and other predatory classes, led by a bandit named Kalwá, in 1824, peace was never again seriously disturbed. Under the energy and perseverance of its first English officials, the Dún rapidly recovered its prosperity. Roads and canals were constructed, cultivation spread over the waste lands; and the people themselves, awaking from their previous apathy, began to acquire habits of industry and self-reliance. Jaunsár Báwar, historically an integral portion of Sirmúr, had been conquered in the same campaign as the Dún; but was at first erected into a separate charge under a Commissioner subordinate to the Resident at Delhi. In 1829, however, it was incorporated with the present District, of which it has ever since formed a part. The Mutiny of 1857 produced little effect in this remote dependency, cut off by the Siwáliks from direct contact with the centres of disaffection in the Doáb or the Delhi Division; and though a party of Jalandhar insurgents, 600 strong, crossed the Jumna into Dehra Dún, they traversed the District without stopping, and never came into collision with the pursuing troops.

Population.—It is probable that the number of the inhabitants has more than trebled since the introduction of British rule. The first regular Census, however, took place as lately as 1865, and it returned a total population of 102,831. In 1872, the numbers had risen to 116,945, showing an increase of 14,114 persons, or 13·7 per cent. By 1881, the population had further risen to 144,070, showing an increase of 27,125, or 23·2 per cent. since 1872. The principal results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarised as follows:—Area of District, 1193 square miles; number of towns and villages, 966; number of houses, 32,942. Total population, 144,070, namely, males 83,985, and females 60,085; proportion of males in total population, 58·3 per cent. Average density of population, 121 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·81; persons per village, 149; houses per square mile, 27·6; inmates per house, 4·3. Classified according to religion, the Census Report returned the population as follows:—Hindus, 125,223, or 86·9 per cent.; Muhammadans, 16,527, or 11·5 per cent.; Christians, 2025, or 1·4 per cent.; Sikhs, 160; and Jains, 134.

The leading Hindu castes comprise the Bráhmans (17,274) and Rájputs (37,550), each of which has two broad sub-divisions into mountain and lowland clans. The latter regard themselves as vastly superior to their hill brethren, and lose caste by intermarriage with them. The highland Bráhmans will eat any kind of meat except beef. The other Hindu castes, numbering over 2000, in the District are as follows:—Ahír, shepherds and cultivators, 2027; Baniyá, traders, 2932; Barhái, carpenters, 2999; Bhangí, a very low caste of sweepers, and engaged in other menial occupations, 10,781; Chamár, another very low caste, engaged as skinners and leather dressers, 16,715; Kahár, labourers, palanquin-bearers, and domestic servants, 4576; Korí, 8669, and Lodhí, 2930, the two principal cultivating castes; Lohár, blacksmiths and iron-workers, 2050. The Gújars, immigrant plunderers of the last century, still retain several villages, but they only numbered 529 in 1881. Among the lower castes, the Mehras and Dhúms possess the greatest interest, as being the probable representatives of the aborigines before the tide of Aryan immigration had set in. The Mehras inhabit the remoter portions of the Eastern Dún, inferior both in physique and intelligence, and timidly averse to intercourse with strangers. The Dhúms have dingy black skins and woolly hair; they form the servile class, only just emancipated from actual slavery under British rule, and still retaining many traces of their ancient status. Their number is not returned separately in the Census Report. With the exception of 167 Shiás, the whole of the Muhammadans belong to the Sunní sect. They have secured few proselytes, except among the wretched Dhúms, and these generally prefer Christianity to Islám. The Christian community consists of 1291 Europeans and Eurasians, and 734 natives; but the Census Report does not return the Christian population according to sect for each District.

The District contained only one town in 1881 whose population exceeded 5000, namely, DEHRA, with 18,959 inhabitants. The sanitaria of MASURI (Mussooree) and LANDAUR, now united into a single town, contain a large number of permanent residents (3106 in February 1881), and attract many visitors from the plains during the hot season. KALSI, the ancient mart of Jaunsár Báwar, has now sunk to the position of a country village; while the cantonment of CHAKRATA, high among the mountains, has succeeded to local importance as the modern capital of the tract. Of the 966 villages, no less than 824 contained, in 1881, fewer than two hundred inhabitants; 111 from two hundred to five hundred; 19 from five hundred to a thousand; 9 from one thousand to two thousand; 2 from three thousand to five thousand; and 1 upwards of fifteen thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six main classes:—Class (1) Professional, including civil and military and the

professional classes, 3367; (2) domestic servants, keepers of lodging-houses, etc., 2379; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 2125; (4) agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, and cattle and sheep tenders, 29,989; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 12,249; (6) indefinite and non-productive (including 9595 general labourers, and 24,281 male children and unspecified), 33,876. The language in ordinary use consists of a very corrupt dialect of Hindí.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1193 square miles, only 106 were cultivated in 1881, 33 square miles were cultivable, and 1021 square miles uncultivable waste. Tillage is chiefly confined to the valleys, or to terraces on the mountain slopes, artificially irrigated by dams and canals. The agricultural year follows the same seasons as in the Doáb. The *kharíf*, or autumn harvest, consists chiefly of rice, the inferior kinds of which can be grown in land entirely dependent on the rainfall for its water-supply. *Joár*, *tíl*, and sugar-cane form supplementary autumn crops. The *rabí*, or spring harvest, falls far short of the *kharíf* in quantity. Its staples comprise wheat and barley, with very few inferior grains. The District produces no surplus for exportation; and since the hill stations of Masurí and Chakráta have risen into importance, a considerable amount of food-stuffs is annually imported for their supply. On the other hand, Dehra Dún now raises tea for exportation to the plains, while timber and other forest produce turn the balance of trade in its favour. The cultivation of the Rhea fibre or China grass was attempted a few years ago, but the experiment proved a failure, and the cultivation has now been abandoned. Irrigation in 1881 was carried on over 9869 acres by means of Government works, and over 21,953 acres by private enterprise. Unirrigated area, 35,378 acres, or nearly one-half of the total area under cultivation. Government has endeavoured to promote the reclamation of the waste lands which abound in all parts of the District, by means of grants to European capitalists; but hitherto little success has attended these enterprises. A grant of a large tract of land in the Eastern Dún has recently been given to Messrs. Lister & Co., a wealthy Yorkshire silk firm, for the purpose of introducing sericulture, but the experiment has not yet (1883) reached a stage to justify predictions as to its success or otherwise. The various agricultural staples cover the following estimated areas:—Wheat, 12,890 acres; barley, 5228 acres; rice, 13,743 acres; *mandwá*, 6412 acres. The average out-turn of wheat per acre may be set down at 11 cwts. per acre, valued at £1, 5s.; and that of barley at 15 cwts. per acre, valued at £1, 1s. Nearly three-fifths of the land is held by tenants with rights of occupancy. Average incidence of Government land revenue, 1s. 0¼d. per acre; average rent paid by cultivators, 3s. 9d. per acre. In the Dún proper, the peasantry have not yet extricated themselves from a

condition of indebtedness to the village banker; but in Jaunsár Báwar they occupy a comparatively enviable position, free from debt, and usually cultivating their own little farms themselves. On the tea plantations, labour obtains excellent wages, which prove quite sufficient to attract Afgháns and other foreigners into competition with natives of the Dún. Ordinary field-labourers receive generally 3d. per diem. Famine has never occurred within the historical period; and it is believed that, among a people so favourably situated as regards the demand for labour, its future occurrence may be considered a very remote contingency. The average prices of food-stuffs for the ten years ending 1880 ruled as follows:—Common rice, 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 4d. per cwt.; best rice, 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. per cwt.; wheat, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The traffic of Dehra Dún has two main channels, leading from the valley to the plains and to the hills respectively. The exports toward the lowlands include timber, bamboo, lime, charcoal, rice, and above all, tea. The total annual value of the latter article raised within the District is estimated at £20,000. Some of it has even found its way, through Afghánistán, to the Russians in Central Asia. In return, the Dún imports from the plains hardware, cotton cloth, blankets, salt, sugar, grain, tobacco, fruits, and spices. All these articles pass on also to the hills; while the return trade consists of rice, ginger, turmeric, red pepper, honey, wax, lac, gum, resin, and other forest produce. With the exception of English-made beer, which is manufactured to a considerable extent by two breweries at Masurí, no manufactures of more than local importance exist. The mode of carriage is confined to bullock-carts, and the carrying trade remains chiefly in the hands of Banjáras. The District has only one bridged and metalled road, from Asámri to Rájpur, along which goes the traffic from the plains through the Mohan Pass, pierced by a causeway 7 miles long. Fair second-class roads connect the other centres of population with the principal passes of the Himálayas or the Siwáliks. The hill stations, however, can only be reached by means of horse-paths. Four printing-presses exist in the District, and an English newspaper is published at Masurí.

Administration.—In 1881, Dehra Dún District contained 3 covenanted officers, the chief of whom bore the title of Superintendent, with the powers of a Magistrate and Collector. The total revenue raised in Dehra Dún during 1874–75 was returned at £6308, of which sum £5797 was due to the land-tax. By 1880–81, the gross revenue of the District had increased to £28,162, of which £6211 were derived from the land. The total cost of civil administration, as represented by the cost of officials and police of all kinds,

was £10,454. The District contained in 1881, 9 Magistrates and 6 civil and revenue judges. The number of policemen of all kinds amounted to 370, being at the rate of 1 constable to every 3·2 square miles of area and every 391 persons. The District jail and lock-up at Dehra Dún contained a daily average of 75 inmates in 1880, of whom 72 were males and 3 females. In education, the District still remains very backward. In 1875-76, the number of inspected schools was returned at 32, with an aggregate roll of 1196 pupils; while in 1880-81, the inspected schools numbered 39, with an attendance roll of 1240 pupils, giving an average of 1 school to every 30·6 square miles, and 8·4 pupils per thousand of the population. There are also a few unimportant uninspected village schools. The Census Report in 1880-81 returned a total of 1368 boys and 310 girls under instruction; and 6295 males and 578 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The American Mission at Dehra, established in 1853, has taken a deep interest in educational matters, and maintains a female school and girls' orphanage. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is sub-divided into 2 *tahsíls* and 3 *parganás*. Municipalities have been established at Dehra and Masurí. In 1880-81, their joint revenue amounted to £3798, of which £2983 was derived from taxation; expenditure, £3062.

Medical Aspects.—Extremes of heat and cold are unknown in the Dehra Dún. The proximity of the Himálayas cools the atmosphere; the warm blasts from the plain do not reach so far among the mountain valleys, while the heavy summer monsoons bring abundant showers, and even in May or June occasional rainfall refreshes the country. The rainfall varies considerably in different parts of the District, the average for 20 years ranging from 57·62 inches at Chakráta, to 75·78 inches at Dehra, 95·54 inches at Masurí, and 123·19 inches at Bhogpur. The temperature generally fluctuates between 37° and 101° F.; but at the sanitarium of Masurí (Mussooree), 6000 feet above sea-level, the thermometer has a range from 27° to 80°. Earthquakes occasionally occur, but seldom cause serious damage. The total number of deaths recorded in the District in 1881 amounted to 2994, being at the rate of 20·7 per 1000 of the population. During the same year, the Government charitable dispensaries at Dehra and Masurí gave relief to 20,042 out-door and 833 in-door patients. [For further information regarding Dehra Dún District, see the *Historical and Statistical Memoir of Dehra Dún*, by G. R. C. Williams, Esq. (Rúrki, 1874); *Settlement Report of Dehra Dún*, by C. A. Daniell, Esq., 1866, this will expire in June 1886, when a revised settlement will be undertaken; *Settlement Report of Jaunsár Báwar Parganá*, by H. G. Ross, Esq., 1883. Also the *Census Report* for 1881, and the *Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports for the North-Western Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Dehrí.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 54′ 30″ N., and long. 84° 12′ 30″ E., on the west bank of the Son (Soane), at the 338th mile of the Grand Trunk Road. Population (1881) 3512. Now noted as the site of the head-works of the Son Canals, and of the workshops designed by Mr. Fouracres in 1869–70, to construct and maintain the various stone, wood, and iron works distributed over the canal system. A training school was opened at Dehra in 1872 with the object of recruiting the upper subordinate establishments of the Public Works Department, European, Eurasian, and native lads being taken as indentured apprentices; but this school has recently been removed to Síbpur at Howrah, opposite Calcutta. To the north of Dehri town is a large indigo factory, the property of Messrs. Gisborne & Co. In 1871, a convict camp was established at Dehrí, as an experiment on a large scale, for the out-door employment of prisoners on remunerative public works. The prisoners were mainly employed on canal works connected with the Irrigation Department, till 1875, when they were moved to Baxar.

Delhi (*Dehli*).—Division or Commissionership in the Punjab, lying between 27° 39′ and 30° 11′ N. lat., and between 76° 13′ and 77° 35′ E. long.; comprising the three Districts of DELHI, GURGAON, and KARNAL, each of which see separately. Area (1881) 5610 square miles, with 2724 towns and villages; number of houses, 295,270, of which 207,616 are occupied and 87,654 are unoccupied; number of resident families, 413,499. Total population, 1,907,984, namely, males 1,019,104, and females 888,880; proportion of males in total population, 53·4 per cent. Average density, 340 persons per square mile; average persons per town or village, 700 (including Delhi City); inmates per house, 9·2. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 1,376,258, or 72·13 per cent.; Muhammadans, 504,623, or 26·44 per cent.; Jains, 15,768; Sikhs, 9133; Pársís, 27; Christians, 2172; and 'others,' 3. Of a total population of 1,907,984 persons, 936,954 are agriculturists, 305,909 being returned as males of fifteen years of age and upwards. The total area of land paying Government revenue or quit-rent is returned at 5166 square miles, of which 3201 square miles are under cultivation, and 987 cultivable. Total amount of Government land revenue and cesses, £303,379; total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £622,366.

Delhi (*Dehli*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjab), lying between 28° 12′ and 29° 13′ N. lat., and between 76° 51′ 15″ and 77° 34′ 45″ E. long., with an area of 1277 square miles, and a population in 1881 of 643,515. Delhi forms the Central District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north by Kárnal, on the west by Rohtak, on the south by Gurgáon, and on the east by the river Jumna (Jamuná), which divides it from the Districts

of Meerut (Mírath) and Bulandshahr in the North-Western Provinces. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of DELHI, the ancient capital of the Mughal Empire.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Delhi forms the meeting place for the alluvial plain of the Jumna valley and the last outlying ridges of the Rájputána Hills. Its northern portion presents the usual monotonous features which characterize the dry lowlands of the Cis-Sutlej (Satlaj) tract; but the waters of the Western Jumna Canal, which traverses the whole length of the tract, produce splendid crops wherever they do not collect in pestilential marshes, or by raising the salts of the soil to the surface, render vegetation impossible, as in parts of Kárnal District (*q.v.*). Only near the Jumna does the nature of the soil exhibit any variety or increased fruitfulness; but along the actual verge of the river an alluvial margin, some 10 miles in width, fringing the bank, marks the western limit of the ancient bed of the main channel, which has gradually receded eastward during the course of ages, leaving a considerable cliff far to the west, the only vestige of its original path. As the river approaches the city of Delhi, however, this lowland region rapidly contracts in width, terminating about a mile above the town, where an offshoot of the Mewat Hills abuts upon the water's edge in a wide stony plateau. The range to which this northernmost outlier belongs may be considered as a prolongation of the Aravalli system. It enters the District from Gurgáon on the southern border, and immediately expands into a rocky table-land, some 3 miles in breadth, running in a north-easterly direction nearly across the District. Ten miles south of the city, the range divides into two branches, one of which, turning sharply to the south-west, re-enters the borders of Gurgáon; while the other continues its northerly course as a narrow ridge of sandstone, and, passing to the west of Delhi, finally loses itself in the valley of the Jumna. The whole table-land nowhere attains an elevation of more than 500 feet above the lowlands at its base; while its surface consists of barren rock, too destitute of water for the possibility of cultivation, even in the few rare patches of level soil. Nevertheless, the neighbouring villages of the lowland tract have allotted this stony plateau among their various communities, and watch over their respective boundaries with the utmost jealousy. The land is only valuable as inferior grazing ground. At the very foot of the hills, a few villages derive fertility from the torrents which course through the ravines during the rainy season, and spread their waters over the flat plain below, thus preparing the soil for the reception of the autumn sowing. The Najafgarh *jhíl* or lake, a shallow scattered sheet of water, covers a considerable surface in the south-east of the District, the area submerged amounting in October to about 27,900 acres. The Jumna, before reaching the borders of Delhi, has been so greatly drained of its

waters for the two older canals which it feeds, that it forms only a narrow stream, fordable at almost any point except during the rains; while at Okhla, a short distance below the city, the whole remaining cold-weather supply is drafted off into the new Agra Canal. Water, however, reappears a few miles lower down. At the heads of the Eastern and Western Jumna Canals the river can often be crossed dry-shod immediately below the dam. But the water which flows under the river-bed, among the boulders and sand, presently reappears and restores the stream.

History.—The tract immediately surrounding the Mughal capital can hardly be said to possess any history of its own, apart from that of the city, which will be found in full under the proper heading. From the earliest period of Aryan colonization in India, the point where the central hills first abut upon the Jumna seems to have formed the site for one great metropolis after another. The whole country, for some 10 or 12 miles around the modern Delhi, and particularly in the south and south-east, is covered with the *débris* of ruined cities, whose remains extend over an estimated area of 45 square miles. First upon the list of successive capitals stands the name of Indraprástha, a city founded (as General Cunningham believes) not later than the 15th century B.C., by the earliest Aryan immigrants into India, when they first began to feel their way along the tangled jungles of the Jumna valley. The Mahábhárata vaguely enshrines the memory of this primitive settlement, and tells how the five Pándavas, leading an Aryan host from Hastinapur upon the Ganges, expelled or subdued the savage Nágás, the aboriginal inhabitants; how, having cleared their land of forest, they founded the stronghold of Indraprástha, which grew into a great kingdom; and how at last, as the Aryan race became strong enough for discord, they turned their arms against their own kinsmen, the Kauravas, whom they overthrew in a great war, the central theme of the Hindu Iliad. Yudisthira, the founder of Indraprástha, was succeeded on the throne by thirty generations of collateral descendants, until at length his line was extinguished by the usurpation of Visarwa, minister of the last Pándavite sovereign. Visarwa's family retained the sceptre for 500 years, and was then followed, with the usual symmetry of early Indian mythical lore, by a dynasty of fifteen Gautamas. In the middle of the 1st century B.C., the name of Delhi makes its earliest appearance in tradition or history; and thenceforth the annals of the District become identical with those of the whole Upper Indian Empire. Passing in succession under the rule of Hindus, Patháns, Mughals, and Maráthás, Delhi came at length into the hands of the British, after Lord Lake's victories in 1803. The tract then ceded to the Company included a considerable strip to the west of the Jumna, both north and south of the Mughal capital. The Governor-General assigned a large

portion of the territory thus acquired for the maintenance and dignity of the royal family of Delhi. Sháh Alam, released from his Maráthá jailors, received as private domain for this purpose the greater part of the present Districts of Delhi and Hissár. A Resident and Chief Commissioner undertook the entire control of the fiscal arrangements, and exercised a general supervision over the criminal jurisdiction; but the king retained exclusive power within the palace walls, while British officials administered Muhammadan law in his name throughout the assigned region. A few native princes, however, still held their independent estates within the Delhi territory, the principal instance in the present District being the Rájá of BALLABHGARH. The anomalous mode of government thus instituted was obviously inconsistent with the full authority of the central power; and, in 1832, it became desirable to introduce a more practicable system of administration. A Regulation of that year abolished the office of Resident and Chief Commissioner, transferred the executive power to a Commissioner in correspondence with the Government of the North-Western Provinces, and vested the judicial functions in the High Court of Agra. This enactment placed the administration of the Delhi territory, nominally as well as actually, in the hands of the East India Company. The territory continued to form part of the North-Western Provinces up till the Mutiny of 1857. As early as 1819, a District of Delhi had been regularly constituted, including a part of the present Rohtak District, but since enlarged by additions from Pánipat *tahsíl* in Kárnal District, and from the confiscated principality of Ballabhgarh. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, the whole District passed for a time into the hands of the rebels; and though communications with the Punjab were soon restored, enabling us to recover the northern *parganás*, it was not till after the fall of DELHI CITY that British authority could reassert itself in the southern portion. When the final suppression of the Mutiny in 1858 enabled the work of reconstruction to proceed, Delhi District was transferred to the newly-formed Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab. At the same time, the territories of the insurgent Rájá of Ballabhgarh, who had been executed for rebellion, were confiscated and added as a new *tahsíl* to the District; while the outlying Doáb villages, hitherto belonging to Delhi, and known as the Eastern Parganá, were handed over to the North-Western Provinces. Since the banishment of the dethroned Emperor to Rangoon, where he died in 1862, the District has enjoyed peaceful administration.

Population.—The frequent changes of boundary, both in the District as a whole and in its component *parganás*, render it impossible to institute a comparison between the results shown by the Census of 1853, under the Government of the North-Western Provinces, and those of the Census of 1868, under the Punjab administration. The latter enumeration, taken over an area of 1276 square miles, disclosed a total

population of 608,850 persons, distributed among 772 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 168,390 houses. The Census of February 17, 1881, returns the area at 1276 square miles, and the population at 643,515. This population is distributed through 701 towns and villages, composed of an aggregate of 73,359 occupied and 35,624 unoccupied houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 504; villages per square mile, 1·8; houses per square mile, 85; persons per village, 918; persons per house, 8·7. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 344,016; females, 299,499; proportion of males, 53·4 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males, 119,769; females, 102,086; total, 221,855, or over 34 per cent. of the total. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus number 483,332; Muhammadans, 149,830; Sikhs, 970; Jains, 7336; Pársís, 27; Christians, 2017; and 'others,' 3. These figures yield the following percentages:—Hindus, 72·9; Muhammadans, 23·2; Jains, 1·1; and all 'others,' 2·8. The classification with reference to occupations distributes the adult male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including officials of every kind and the learned professions, 29,928; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 41,784; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 20,969; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including shepherds, 313,977; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 161,801; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 83,855.

Of the 701 towns and villages in the District in 1881, 140 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 240 between two and five hundred; 192 between five hundred and one thousand; 91 between one and two thousand; 26 between two and three thousand; 8 between three and five thousand; 2 between five and ten thousand; 7 between ten and fifteen thousand; and 1 more than fifty thousand.

Among the castes and tribes, the Játs come first with 107,075, remarkable here as elsewhere for industrious habits, agricultural skill, and promptitude in the payment of revenue. North of Delhi the greater part of the land is in their possession, though they often share their villages with Bráhman coparceners. They are found more frequently in the uplands of the interior than in the alluvial fringe of the Jumna valley. Two classes of Játs are found in the neighbourhood of Delhi, the Deswala and the Pacháde. The latter are a later immigration from the west, but do not differ materially from the former. The greater number profess the Sivaite creed of Hinduism. With regard to the distribution of castes and tribes, the following facts appear from the returns of the Census:—Hindu Játs number 103,984; Muhammadan Játs, 2318; Sikh Játs, 765; 'others,' 4. Hindu Rájputs number 23,282; Muham-

madan Rájputs, 10,511; Sikh Rájputs, 11; 'others,' 19. Hindu Bráhmans number 59,640; Muhammadan Bráhmans, 2333; and 'others,' 34. Patháns number 15,969, all of them Muhammadans; Chamárs, 63,407; Gújars, 25,836; Chúhras, 26,067; Shaikhs, 50,195, all of them Muhammadans; Báluchís, 1318, all Muhammadans; Baniyás, 42,414, all Hindus; Náis, 11,080; Lohars, 5934; Sayyids, all Muhammadans, 8800; Sonárs, 4085; Dhobis, 4157; Fakírs or begging-priest caste, 1428; Mughals, all Muhammadans, 5806; and Jogís, religious mendicants, 5006. The Bráhmans are most of them industrious cultivators, sharing villages with the Játs, possibly as a remnant of some conquest-tenure, resembling the Sikh *chahárami* of the Cis-Sutlej tract (*see* UMBALLA DISTRICT). The Taga sub-division of Bráhmans is one of the most important in the District. They are of the Gaur family, and their tradition is that they were invited from Bengal for the purpose of exterminating snakes. Sir H. Elliot finds in this story an allusion to wars against 'Takshak Scythians' of a Buddhist creed. Possibly many of the Delhi Bráhmans are lineal descendants of the autochthonous Pandávas or original Aryan dwellers in the District. The Baniyás or trading classes are scattered as shopkeepers through the country villages, and form a large proportion of the mercantile body in Delhi itself. The idle and dishonest Gújars (25,836) carry on their usual pastoral and semi-nomad avocations in the hilly plateau of the south, with no better reputation for cattle-lifting and thieving propensities than their clansmen elsewhere. The Patháns are the only tribe of genuine Muhammadan origin, and still retain their nationality distinct. The Ahírs are a high-caste pastoral Hindu tribe. The District contains 4 towns with a population exceeding 5000, in 1881—DELHI CITY, 173,393; SONPAT, 13,077; FARIDABAD, 7427; and BALLABHGARH, 5821. The aggregate urban population at the date of the Census amounted to 203,717 persons, or 31 per cent. of the District total. Urdu or Hindustání forms the prevailing dialect of all classes.

Agriculture.—The District of Delhi had in 1882–83 a total cultivated area of 525,676 acres, of which 95,346 were irrigated from Government works, and 80,376 by private enterprise. The uncultivated area includes 10,115 acres of grazing land, 133,642 acres of cultivable waste, and 135,500 acres of barren rock or soil rendered useless by saline efflorescence. The north-western uplands are watered by the Western Jumna Canal, except in a few spots where the surface of the country rises above the level of the main channel. Cotton and sugar-cane here form the commercial staples of the autumn harvest, while rice, *joár*, *bájra*, and Indian corn are the chief food-grains. In the spring sowings, wheat, barley, and gram make up the principal crops; but tobacco covers a considerable area, and rice of excellent quality is produced wherever water is abundant. The cultivation of cotton is on the increase,

a ready market being obtained at Delhi. The *khádar*, or alluvial fringe of the Jumna, cannot compete with the artificially-irrigated uplands. The crops in this tract include the same general staples, but the produce is inferior in kind. Well-irrigation is almost everywhere possible throughout the *khádar*, sweet water being found a few feet below the surface. South of Delhi, the nature of the soil deteriorates. Most of the land belongs to the stony ridge which projects into the District from the Aravalli range; and though the new Agra Canal traverses this unfruitful region, its level is too low to permit of irrigation. The Najafgarh *jhíl*, after being filled in the rains, is drained into the Jumna by an escape channel, and crops are then sown upon the submerged land; but only a partial success has hitherto attended the operations of the Canal Department in this respect, owing to the want of a sufficient fall. The following list shows the number of acres under each of the principal staples in 1882-83:—Wheat, 138,753; barley, 63,289; gram, 56,653; Indian corn, 11,954; tobacco, 4200; rice, 16,406; *joár*, 71,238; *bájra*, 90,255; cotton, 31,991; sugar-cane, 27,223. The Government returns of 1882-83 state the average out-turn per acre as follows:—Rice, 1005 lbs.; cotton, 161 lbs.; tobacco, 737 lbs.; wheat, 635 lbs.; gram, 524 lbs.; barley, 895 lbs.; *joár*, 181 lbs.; indigo, 150 lbs.; oil-seeds, 168 lbs.; and inferior grains, 226 lbs. The tenures consist of the types common in the North-Western Provinces, to which Delhi belongs in natural position and historical antecedents. The holding known as *bhayáchárá*, or brotherhood, is the most frequent. The village communities are strong and united. From 50 to 100 acres would be considered a large holding for a cultivating proprietor; 20 would be regarded as above the average for a tenant; while 5 acres represent the whole farm in many cases. By far the greater number of tenants possess no permanent rights of occupancy. Rents vary much with the nature of the crop which the land is suited to produce. Rice lands fetch from 8s. to £1 per acre; cotton lands, from 6s. to 16s.; sugar lands, from 10s. to £1, 10s.; wheat lands, from 6s. to 16s.; indigo lands, from 10s. to 16s.; tobacco lands, from 10s. to £1, 4s.; and dry lands, suitable for inferior grains, from 2s. to 8s. Wages are almost universally paid in money. Agricultural labourers received 4d., or 10 lbs. of wheat, per diem in 1881. Prices ruled as follows in 1883:—Wheat, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt.; barley, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.; gram, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; *joár*, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; rice, 5 *sers* per rupee; potatoes, 20 *sers* per rupee; sugar, 3 *sers* per rupee; tobacco, 2 *sers* per rupee; salt, 11 *sers* per rupee.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District centres almost entirely in the city of DELHI. Sonpat, Farídábád, and Ballabhgarh are local marts of some importance, but have no external transactions of any

value. The manufactures are also confined to the capital, which has a high reputation for gold and silk embroidery, jewellery, and other ornamental goods of fine workmanship. The glazed ware of the District has a reputation second only to that of the similar ware of Peshāwar. The District now lies a little apart from the main channel of trade, owing to the diversion caused by the great northern line of railway, which runs through the Doáb Districts on the other side of the Jumna. Nevertheless, the means of communication are amply sufficient, both by land and water. In 1882, there were 72 miles of navigable river, 116 miles of metalled and 293 of unmetalled roads, and 12 miles of railway. The East Indian Railway has a branch from Gháziábád Junction, which crosses the Jumna by an iron bridge, and has a station within the city; and this branch is also used by the Punjab line. The Rájputána State Railway traverses the District for a short distance in the direction of Gurgáon. The Jumna is navigable during the rainy season for country boats of 400 *maunds* burden. Good metalled roads connect the city with Lahore, Agra, Jáipur (Jeypore), and Hissár; while a network of local trade-lines runs in every direction to the various minor towns and *gháts*. Bridges of boats lead across the river at Bhágpat and Chánsa, Meniarpur, and Jhundpur; and the railway bridge at Delhi has an underway for ordinary wheel traffic.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 1 Assistant and 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, a judge of the Small Cause Court, 2 *munsifs* or subordinate magistrates, and 3 *tahsíldárs*, besides the usual medical, fiscal, and constabulary officials. The total revenue raised in the District in 1882–83 amounted to £112,702, of which £79,479 was due to the land-tax. Among the other items, the chief were salt, customs, and stamps. For police purposes, the District is distributed into 13 police circles (*thánás*). In 1882–83, the regular police numbered 1141 officers and men of all ranks, of whom 539 were District, 591 municipal, and 11 cantonment police. The police machinery was therefore 1 policeman to each square mile of area and to every 564 persons of the population. But as the city of Delhi alone has 457 policemen, the real proportion for the rural *parganás* may be more fairly estimated at 1 to every 2 square miles. The total number of persons brought to trial upon all charges, great or small, in 1882 amounted to 5227. The District jail, adapted from an old *sarái*, had an aggregate of 1338 prisoners in 1882, with a daily average of 443 inmates. In the District lock-ups during the year 667 prisoners were received. Cost of maintenance of prisoners, £2030. Education was carried on in 1882–83 by 118 schools and colleges, having a total roll of 6126 pupils. The principal establishments include an aided mission college, the Upper District School, the Anglo-Arabic School, and the classes in connection

with the mission of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The Government Delhi College has been abolished within the last few years. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is sub-divided into 3 *tahsíls*, with an aggregate of 800 villages, owned by 52,064 proprietors. Five towns within the District possess municipalities, namely, Delhi, Sonpat, Ballabhgarh, Farídábád, and Najafgarh. In 1882–83, the aggregate municipal revenue amounted to £31,211, or 3s. per head of the population (203,717) within municipal limits; municipal expenditure, £25,400.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Delhi does not materially differ from that of other Districts in the Jumna basin. The maximum temperature in the shade in May 1882 was 116° F.; the minimum in December, 46·4°. The prevailing winds are north-westerly or westerly. The total annual rainfall amounted to 21·8 inches in 1869–70, 23·7 inches in 1870–71, and 33·1 inches in 1871–72. In 1882 it was 29·2 inches. The principal endemic diseases are fever and bowel complaints; but small-pox often commits severe ravages in an epidemic form. The total number of deaths recorded in 1882 was 20,122, being at the rate of 31 per thousand; and of these 12,263, or 19 per thousand, were due to fevers alone. The District contains 8 charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1882 to 1148 in-door and 55,982 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Delhi District, see the forthcoming *Punjab Gazetteer;* Mr. Stack's *Settlement Memorandum;* Sir J. W. Kaye and Colonel Malleson's Mutiny Narratives *passim.* Also the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881, and the *Punjab Annual Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Delhi.—Head-quarters *tahsíl* of Delhi District, Punjab. Area, 434 square miles. Population, including Delhi City, 317,802, namely, males 170,579, and females 147,223; average density of rural population, 323 persons per square mile; of the total population, 752 per square mile. As regards religion, Hindus number 220,352; Muhammadans, 91,105; Sikhs, 892; and 'others,' 5453. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £26,923. The administrative staff, including the head-quarters of the Division and District, consists of a Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Judicial Commissioner, 2 Assistant Commissioners, 1 Small Cause Court Judge, with a *tahsíldár* and 2 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 7 civil and 9 criminal courts; number of police stations, 6; strength of regular police force, 645 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 294.

Delhi.—City in Delhi District, Punjab, the administrative head-quarters of the District and Division, and former capital of the Mughal Empire. Lat. 28° 38′ 58″ N., long. 77° 16′ 30″ E. Population in 1881, 173,393 souls. Distant from Calcutta 954 miles, from Agra 113, from Allahábád 390 miles.

Situation and General Appearance.—The modern city of Delhi or Sháhjahánábád abuts on the right bank of the river Jumna, and is enclosed on three sides by a lofty wall of solid stone, constructed by the Emperor Sháh Jahán, and subsequently strengthened by the English at the beginning of the present century with a ditch and *glacis*. The eastern side, where the city extends to the river bank, has no wall; but the high bank is faced with masonry. The circuit of the wall is 5½ miles. It has ten gates, of which the principal are the Kashmír and Mori gates on the north; the Kábul and Lahore gates on the east; and the Ajmere and Delhi gates on the south. The Imperial palace, now known as 'the fort,' is situated in the east of the city, and abuts directly on the river. It is surrounded on three sides by an imposing wall of red sandstone, with small round towers, and a gateway on the west and south. Since the Mutiny of 1857, a great portion has been demolished in order to make room for English barracks. South of the fort, in the Dariáganj quarter of the city, is the cantonment for a regiment of native infantry, which, with one wing of a European regiment stationed within the fort, makes up the ordinary garrison of Delhi. On the opposite side of the river is the fortress of Salímgarh, erected in the 16th century by Salím Sháh, and now in ruins. At this point the East Indian Railway enters the city by a magnificent bridge across the Jumna, passing over Salímgarh, and through a corner of the fort, to the railway station within the city walls. Thence the line proceeds as the Rájputána State Railway, and, after traversing the city, emerges through the wall on the north-west. In the north-eastern corner of the city, within the walls and close to the Kashmír gate, are situated the treasury and other public offices. Dariáganj, the fort, the public offices, and the railway form an almost continuous line along the eastern and northern faces of the city, the angle between them being devoted to public gardens. The area thus occupied amounts to nearly one-half of the entire city; it presents a comparatively open appearance, and forms a marked contrast to the south-west quarter of the town, which is densely occupied by the shops and dwellings of the native population.

The architectural glories of Delhi are famous alike in Indian and European literature. It is impossible in a brief notice like the present to attempt any adequate description of them. They have been treated with admirable knowledge and artistic appreciation in Mr. Fergusson's *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (1876). The palace of Sháh Jahán—now the fort—perhaps less picturesque and sober in tone than that of Agra, has the advantage of being built on a more uniform plan, and by the most magnificent of the Royal builders of India. It forms a parallelogram, measuring 1600 feet east and west by 3200 north and south, exclusive of the gateways. Passing the deeply-recessed portal, a vaulted hall is entered, rising two storeys, 375 feet long, like the

nave of a gigantic Gothic cathedral—'the noblest entrance,' says Mr. Fergusson, 'to any existing palace.' Omitting all mention of the music hall and smaller holdings, or fountains, however beautiful, the celebrated *diwán-i-khás* or Private Audience Hall forms, 'if not the most beautiful, certainly the most ornamented of all Jahán's buildings. It overhangs the river, and nothing can exceed the delicacy of its inlaid work or the poetry of its design. It is round the roof of this hall that the famous inscription ran: 'If there is a heaven on earth, it is this—it is this!' which may safely be rendered into the sober English assertion, that no palace now existing in the world possesses an apartment of such unique elegance. The whole of the area between the central range of buildings to the south, measuring about 1000 feet each way, was occupied, says Mr. Fergusson, by the harem and private apartments of the palace, covering, consequently, more than twice the area of the Escurial, or, in fact, of any palace in Europe. 'According to the native plan I possess (which I see no reason for distrusting), it contained three garden courts, and about thirteen or fourteen other courts, arranged some for state, some for convenience; but what they were like we have no means of knowing. Not a vestige of them now remains. Of the public parts of the palace, all that now exists is the entrance hall, the *naubát kháná*, the *diwán-i-ám*, *diwán-i-khás*, and the *rang mahál*—now used as a mess-room—and one or two small pavilions. These are the gems of the palace, it is true; but without the courts and corridors connecting them they lose all their meaning, and more than half their beauty. Being now situated in the middle of a British barrack-yard, they look like precious stones torn from their setting in some exquisite piece of oriental jeweller's work and set at random in a bed of the commonest plaster.'

The buildings in the native town are chiefly of brick, well-built and substantial. The smaller streets are narrow and tortuous, and in many cases end in *culs-de-sac*. On the other hand, no city in India has finer streets than the main thoroughfares of Delhi, ten in number, thoroughly drained, metalled, and lighted. The principal thoroughfare, the Chándni Chauk, or Silver Street, leads eastwards from the fort to the Lahore gate, three-quarters of a mile long by 74 feet broad. Throughout the greater part of its length, a double row of *ním* and *pípal* trees runs down its centre on both sides of a raised path, which has taken the place of the masonry aqueduct that in former days conducted water from the canal into the palace. A little to the south of the Chándni Chauk is the Jamá Masjíd, or great mosque, standing out boldly from a small rocky rising ground. Begun by Sháh Jahán in the fourth year of his reign, and completed in the tenth, it still remains one of the finest buildings of its kind in India. The front courtyard, 450 feet square, surrounded by a cloister open on both sides, is paved with granite inlaid with

marble, and commands a view of the whole city. The mosque itself, a splendid structure forming an oblong 261 feet in length, is approached by a magnificent flight of stone steps. Three domes of white marble rise from its roof, with two tall and graceful minarets at the corners in front. The interior of the mosque is paved throughout with white marble, and the walls and roof are lined with the same material. Two other mosques in Delhi deserve a passing notice,—the Kálá Masjíd, or black mosque, so called from the dark colour given to it by time, and supposed to have been built by one of the early Afghán sovereigns; and the mosque of Roshan-ud-daulá. Among the more modern buildings of Delhi may be mentioned the Government College, founded in 1792, but recently abolished; the Residency; and the Protestant church, built at a cost of £10,000 by Colonel Skinner, an officer well known in the history of the East India Company. About half-way down the Chándni Chauk is a high clock-tower, with the Institute and Museum opposite. Behind the Chándni Chauk, to the north, lie the Queen's Gardens; beyond them the 'city lines' stretch away as far as the historic 'ridge,' about a mile outside the town. From the summit of this ridge the view of the station and city is very picturesque. To the west and north-west, considerable suburbs cluster beyond the walls, containing the tombs of the imperial family. That of Humáyun, the second of the Mughal dynasty, is a noble building of granite inlaid with marble. It lies about 2 miles from the city, amid a large garden of terraces and fountains, the whole surrounded by an embattled wall, with towers and four gateways. In the centre stands a platform about 20 feet high by 200 feet square, supported by cloisters, and ascended by four great flights of granite steps. Above rises the Mausoleum, also a square, with a great dome of while marble in the centre. About a mile to the westward is another burying-ground, or collection of tombs and small mosques, some of them very beautiful. The most remarkable is perhaps the little chapel in honour of a celebrated Musalmán saint, Nizám-ud-dín, near whose shrine the members of the late imperial family, up to the time of the Mutiny, lie buried, each in his own little enclosure, surrounded by very elegant lattice-work of white marble. Other buildings, ruins, and pillars will be described under the next section, *History*. The Kutab Minár is situated about 10 miles to the south of the city. (*See* p. 191.)

The palaces of the nobles, which formerly gave an air of grandeur to the city, have for the most part disappeared. Their sites are occupied by structures of less pretension, but still with some elegance of architectural design. The city is now amply supplied with water; and much attention has of late been paid to cleanliness and sanitary requirements generally. The principal local institution was, until 1877, the Delhi College, founded in 1792. It was at first exclusively an oriental

school, supported by the voluntary contributions of Muhammadan gentlemen, and managed by a committee of the subscribers. In 1829, an English Department was added to it; and in 1855, the institution was placed under the control of the Educational Department. The old college attained to great celebrity as an educational institution, and produced many excellent scholars. In the Mutiny of 1857, it was plundered of a very valuable oriental library, and the building completely destroyed. A new college was founded in 1858, and affiliated to the University of Calcutta in 1864. Under orders of the Government of the Punjab (February 1877), the collegiate staff of teachers have been withdrawn, in order to concentrate the grant available for higher-class education upon the central institution at Lahore, the capital of the Punjab Province.

History.—Delhi stands upon a site which has been occupied by many successive capitals since the first Aryan immigration into the valley of the Jumna. Its modern aspect is thus described by Bishop Heber: 'A very awful scene of desolation, ruins after ruins, tombs after tombs, fragments of brickwork, freestone, granite, and marble, scattered everywhere over a soil naturally rocky and barren, without cultivation, except in one or two small spots, and without a single tree.' The waste of ruins extends from the southern end of the present city of Sháhjahánábád to the deserted forts of Rai Pithora and Tughlakábád, a distance of 10 miles. The area covered with these vestiges of successive empires cover an area of 45 square miles. The village and fort of Indrapat or Purána Kilá, 2 miles south of the existing walls, mark the spot where the earliest Pándava colonists placed their city of Indraprástha (*see* DELHI DISTRICT); but the name of Dilli or Dillipur only makes its appearance in the middle of the 1st century B.C. General Cunningham, following the authority of Ferishta, attributes the foundation of this original Delhi, 5 miles lower down the river than its modern representative, to Rájá Dilu, apparently the last ruler of the Mayura dynasty, whom tradition names as successors to the Gautama line of Indraprástha. But the earliest authentic information which we obtain with regard to the city is derived from the famous iron pillar of Rájá Dháva, set up in the 3rd or 4th century A.D. This remarkable relic consists of a solid shaft of metal, 16 inches in diameter and about 50 feet in length, so firmly planted in the earth that less than half its height appears above the ground. A Sanskrit inscription, deeply cut on its western face, records the story of its origin. Mr. James Prinsep, the first decipherer of the legend, found that it commemorated the prowess of Rájá Dháva, who 'obtained with his own arm an undivided sovereignty on the earth for a long period;' while the letters appear to be 'the typical cuts inflicted on his enemies by his sword, writing his immortal fame.' General Cunningham suggests the year 319 A.D. as an

approximation to the date, on the ground that the Rájá may probably have contributed to the downfall of the great Gupta dynasty (*see* KANAUJ), which is supposed to have occurred in that year. Tradition, however, running counter to the unimpeachable authority of the inscription, refers the erection of the pillar to Anang Pál, founder of the Túar, Tunwar, or Tomar dynasty in the 8th century A.D. A holy Bráhman assured the Rájá that the pillar had been driven so deeply into the earth, that it reached the head of Vasuki, the serpent king, who supports the world; and, consequently, had become immoveable, whereby the dominion was ensured for ever to the dynasty of its founder, so long as the pillar stood. The incredulous Rájá ordered the monument to be dug up, when its base was found reddened with the blood of the serpent king. Thus convinced, Anang Pál at once commanded that the shaft should be sunk again in the earth; but, as a punishment for his want of faith, it appeared that no force could restore it in its place as before. Hence the city derived its name of Dhili, from the fact that the column remained loose (*dhíla*) in the ground! Unfortunately for the legend, not only does the inscription prove its falsity, but the name of Dilli is undoubtedly earlier than the rise of the Túar dynasty. Anang Pál, whose accession is placed by General Cunningham in the year 736 A.D., restored Delhi, which had fallen into ruins for some generations, and made it the capital of his race. The later Rájás, however, appear to have taken up their residence at Kanauj, whence they were expelled about the middle of the 11th century by Chandra Deva, the first of the Rahtor kings. Anang Pál II. then retired to Delhi, which became once more the Túar metropolis. He rebuilt and adorned the city, surrounding it with a massive line of fortifications, whose ruins are still believed to exist in the great circle of masonry lying around the Kutab Minár. The date of this restoration has been preserved for us by a second inscription, cut into the more ancient pillar of Rájá Dháva: 'In Sambat 1109' [1052 A.D.], 'Anang Pál peopled Dilli.' Just a century later, under the reign of a third Anang Pál, last of the Túar line, Delhi fell (1154) before Visaldeva or Bisaldeo, Chauhán ruler of AJMERE. The conqueror permitted the vanquished Rájá to retain possession as a vassal; and from a marriage between the two houses sprang the celebrated Prithvi Rájá, the last champion of Hindu independence in Upper India, who thus succeeded to the joint realms of the Túars and the Chauháns. Prithvi Rájá further strengthened the defences of the city by the erection of the fort called Rai Pithora, and by building an exterior wall, which ran round the fortifications of Anang Pál, and of which remains may still be traced for a considerable distance. At this point the history of Hindu Delhi ends. In 1191, Sháhab-ud-dín, better known as Muhammad of Ghor, made his first invasion of Upper India, bringing the religion of the

Prophet and authentic history in his train. Prithvi Rájá successfully defended his kingdom for a time; Muhammad was routed at Thanesar, and his horde pursued for forty miles; but two years later, the Muhammadan marauders returned, utterly overthrew the Hindus in a great battle, and put their prince to death in cold blood.

Kutab-ud-dín, the Sultán's Viceroy, attacked and took Delhi, which became thenceforth the Musalmán capital. On the death of Sháhab-ud-dín, in 1206, the Viceroy proclaimed himself an independent sovereign, and became the founder of the Slave dynasty, to whom Old Delhi owes most of its grandest ruins. Kutab-ud-dín's mosque was commenced, according to the inscription on its entrance archway, immediately after the capture of the city in 1193. It was completed in three years, and enlarged during the reign of Altamsh, son-in-law of the founder, and the greatest monarch of the line. This mosque consists of an outer and inner courtyard, the latter surrounded by an exquisite colonnade, whose richly-decorated shafts have been torn from the precincts of earlier Hindu temples. Originally a thick coat of plaster concealed from the believers' eyes the profuse idolatrous ornamentations; but the stucco has now fallen away, revealing the delicate workmanship of the Hindu artists in all its pristine wealth. Eleven magnificent arches close its western façade, Muhammadan in outline and design, but carried out in detail by Hindu workmen, as the intricate lacework which covers every portion of the arcade sufficiently bears witness. Ibn Batuta, the Moorish traveller, who was a magistrate in Delhi, and saw the mosque about 150 years after its erection, describes it as unequalled either for beauty or extent. The Kutab Minár, another celebrated monument of the great Slave king, stands in the south-east corner of the outer courtyard of the mosque. It rises to a height of 238 feet, tapering gracefully from a diameter of 47 feet at the base to nearly 9 feet at the summit. The shaft consists of 5 storeys, enclosing a spiral staircase, and is crowned by a now broken cupola, which fell during an earthquake in 1803. The original purpose of the minaret was doubtless as a Muazzam's tower, whence the call to morning and evening prayer might be heard throughout the whole city. The site chosen for the mosque was that already occupied by Rájá Dháva's pillar, which forms the centre ornament of the inner courtyard. Around, in every direction, spreads a heap of splendid ruins, the most striking of which is the unfinished minaret of Alá-ud-dín, commenced in 1311.

During the reign of the Slave kings, a queen, for the first and last time in the history of Muhammadan Delhi, sat on the throne of the empire. As the patriot Hungarians, in the annals of modern Europe, drew their swords for *Rex* Maria Theresa, so her admiring subjects gave to Queen Raziyá the masculine title of *Sultán*. The Slave dynasty retained the sovereignty till 1290, when Jalál-ud-dín, the

Khilji, founded a new line. During the reign of his nephew and successor, Alá-ud-dín, Delhi was twice unsuccessfully attacked by Mughal hordes, who swept into the country from Central Asia.

In 1321, the house of Tughlak succeeded to the Musalmán Empire; and Ghiyás-ud-dín, its founder, erected a new capital, Tughlakábád, on a rocky eminence 4 miles farther to the east. Remains of a massive citadel, and deserted streets or lanes, still mark the spot on which this third metropolis arose; but no human inhabitants now frequent the vast and desolate ruins. Ghiyás-ud-dín died in 1325, and was succeeded by his son Muhammad Tughlak, who thrice attempted to remove the seat of government and the whole population from Delhi to DAULATABAD (*Deogiri*) in the Deccan—more than 800 miles away. Ibn Batuta, a native of Tangiers, who visited his court in 1341, gives a graphic picture of the desolate city, with its magnificent architectural works, and its bare, unpeopled houses. Firoz Sháh Tughlak once more removed the site of Delhi to a new town, Firozábád, which appears to have occupied the ground between the tomb of Humáyun and the Ridge. Amid the ruins of this prince's palace, just outside the modern south gate, stands one of the famous pillars originally erected by Asoka, the great Buddhist Emperor, in the 3rd century B.C. This monolith, 42 feet in height, known as Firoz Sháh's *lát* or pillar, is composed of pale pink sandstone, and contains a Páli inscription, deciphered by the painstaking scholarship and ingenuity of Mr. James Prinsep. Its connection with Delhi, however, does not date further back than the reign of Firoz Sháh, who brought it from near Khizrábád on the upper waters of the Jumna, and fixed it on the summit of his comparatively modern building.

In December 1398, during the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, the hordes of Timúr reached Delhi. The king fled to Gujarát, the army suffered a defeat beneath the walls, and Timúr, entering the city, gave it over for five days to plunder and massacre. Dead bodies choked the streets; and when at last even the Mughal appetite for carnage was satiated, the host retired dragging with them into slavery large numbers both of men and women. For two months Delhi remained absolutely without a show of government; until Muhammad Tughlak recovered a miserable fragment of his former empire. In 1412 he died; and his successors, the Sayyid dynasty, held Delhi with a petty principality in the neighbourhood until 1444. The Lodí family, who succeeded to the Musalmán Empire in that year, appear to have deserted Delhi, fixing their residence and the seat of government at AGRA. In 1526, Bábar, the sixth in descent from Timúr, and founder of the so-called Mughal dynasty, marched into India with a small but disciplined force; and having overthrown Ibráhim Lodí, the last dynastic Afghán prince, on the decisive field of PANIPAT, advanced upon Delhi, which he entered

in May of the same year. The new sovereign, however, resided mainly at Agra, where he died in 1530. His son Humáyun removed to Delhi, and built or restored the fort of Purána Kila on the site of Indraprástha. The Afghán Sher Sháh, who drove out Humáyun in 1540, enclosed and fortified the city with a new wall. One of his approaches, known as the Lál Darwáza or Red Gate, still stands isolated on the roadside, facing the modern jail. The fortress of Salímgarh, already mentioned, preserves the name of a son of Sher Sháh. In 1555, Humáyun regained his throne, but died within six months of his restoration. His tomb forms one of the most striking architectural monuments in the neighbourhood. Akbar and Jahángír usually resided at Agra, Lahore, or Ajmere (Ajmír); and Delhi again languished in disfavour till the reign of Sháh Jahán. This magnificent Emperor rebuilt the city in its present form, surrounding it with the existing fortifications, and adding the title of Sháhjahánábád from his own name. He also built the Jamá Masjid, and reopened the Western Jumna Canal. Under the reign of Aurangzeb, Delhi was the seat of that profuse and splendid court whose glories were narrated to Europe in extravagant fables by travellers and missionaries.

After the death of Aurangzeb, the Mughal Empire fell rapidly to pieces; but the numerous palace intrigues and revolutions amid which it broke up, belong to the general domain of Indian history. In 1726, during the reign of Muhammad Sháh, the Maráthás first appeared beneath the walls of Delhi. Three years later, Nádir Sháh entered the city in triumph, and re-enacted the massacre of Timúr. For fifty-eight days the victorious Persian plundered rich and poor alike; when the last farthing had been exacted, he left the city with a booty estimated at £9,000,000. Before the final disruption of the decaying empire in 1760, the unhappy capital was devastated by a civil war carried on for six months in its streets; twice sacked by Ahmad Sháh Duráni; and finally spoiled by the rapacious Maráthás. Alamgír II., the last real Emperor, was murdered in 1760. Sháh Alam, who assumed the empty title, could not establish his authority in Delhi, which became the alternate prey of Afghán and Maráthás until 1771, when the latter party restored the phantom Emperor to the city of his ancestors. In 1788, a Maráthá garrison permanently occupied the palace, and the king remained a prisoner in the hands of Sindhia until the British conquest. On March 14th, 1803, Lord Lake, having defeated the Maráthás, entered Delhi, and took the king under his protection. Next year, Holkar attacked the city; but Colonel, afterwards Sir David, Ochterlony, the first British Resident, successfully held out against overwhelming numbers for eight days, until relieved by Lord Lake. The conquered territory was administered by the British in the name of the Emperor (*see* DELHI DISTRICT), while the palace remained under His Majesty's jurisdiction.

For more than half a century Delhi was happy in entire freedom from the incidents of history. But the Mutiny of 1857 once more gave it prominence as the revived capital of the fallen Empire. The outbreak at Meerut took place on the evening of May 10th; and early next morning the mutinous troopers had crossed the Jumna, and clamoured for admission beneath the Delhi wall. The Commandant of the Guards, the Commissioner, and the Collector retired to the Lahore gate of the palace, and were there cut to pieces. Most of the European residents then had their homes within the city. The mutineers and the mob fell upon them at once, carrying murder and plunder into every house. The mutinous infantry from Meerut arrived; and by eight o'clock the rebels held the whole city, except the magazine and the main-guard. News of these events soon reached the cantonment beyond the Ridge, where three battalions of Native infantry and a battery of Native artillery were stationed. The 54th N.I. was marched promptly down to the main-guard, but proved mutinous on their arrival, and cut down several of their officers. Portions of two regiments, however, together with the artillery, remained all day under arms in the main-guard, and were reinforced from time to time by the few fugitives who succeeded in escaping from the city. The magazine stood half-way between the palace and the main-guard; and here Lieutenant Willoughby, with eight other Europeans, held out bravely for some time, determined to defend the immense store of munitions collected within; but about mid-day defence became hopeless, and the nine brave men blew up the magazine behind them. Five perished in the explosion; two reached the main-guard; while the remaining two escaped by a different road to Meerut. All day long the Sepoys in the cantonment and the main-guard were restrained by the expected arrival of white regiments from Meerut; but as evening drew on, and no European troops appeared, they openly threw off their allegiance, and began an indiscriminate massacre of the officers, women, and children. A few escaped along the roads to Meerut or Karnál, but most even of these were murdered or perished of hunger on the way. By nightfall, every vestige of British authority had disappeared alike in the cantonments and in the city. Meanwhile, in Delhi, some fifty Christians, European or Eurasian, mostly women and children, had been thrust indiscriminately into a room of the palace, and, after sixteen days' confinement, were massacred in the courtyard.

The restoration of Mughal sovereignty, and the acts by which it was accompanied, belong rather to Imperial than local history. The Court of the rebel Emperor did not long enjoy its independence. On June 8th, 1857, the British forces fought the battle of Badli-ka-Sarái, and the same evening swept the mutineers from the cantonments, and encamped upon the rocky ridge outside the city. For three months

the siege proceeded under the most disadvantageous conditions, and at length, on September 8th, the heavy batteries were got into action, and an assault was prepared. On the 14th, our troops advanced to storm the gates, in the face of an overwhelming rebel garrison, and, in spite of serious losses and heavy fighting, succeeded by a marvellous display of gallantry in carrying the bastions and occupying the whole eastern quarter of the city. For five days fighting continued in the streets, the rebels retreating from point to point, and every defensible position being occupied by our troops only after a severe struggle. On the night of the 20th, the palace and the remaining portions of the city were evacuated by the mutineers, and Delhi came once more into the possession of the British forces. The king, with several members of his family, took refuge in the tomb of Humáyun, and surrendered on the 21st. Tried by a military commission, he was found guilty of encouraging acts of rebellion and murder, but, owing to the terms of his surrender, received no heavier penalty than that of perpetual banishment. He died at Rangoon on October 7th, 1862. Delhi, thus recovered, remained for a while under military government; and it became necessary, owing to the frequent murders of European soldiers, to expel the population for a while from the city. Shortly after, the Hindu inhabitants were freely readmitted; but the Muhammadans were still rigorously excluded, till the restoration of the city to the civil authorities, on January the 11th, 1858. The work of reorganization then continued rapidly during the remainder of that year; and after a few months, the shattered bastions and the ruined walls alone recalled the memory of the Mutiny. Since that date Delhi has settled down into a prosperous commercial town, and a great railway centre. The romance of antiquity still lingers around it, and Delhi was chosen as the scene of the Imperial Proclamation on the 1st of January 1877.

Population.—Between the Census of 1868 and the Census of 1881 the population of Delhi City increased by 18,976. In 1853, the number of inhabitants was returned at 152,426. In 1868, the population numbered 154,417, showing an increase of 1991 persons in the fifteen years. Taking into consideration the actual losses during the Mutiny, the expulsion of the Musalmáns after its suppression, and the large number of persons thrown out of employment by the removal of the court, the fact that such an increase should have taken place bears witness to the renewed prosperity of the city. According to the Census of February 17th, 1881, the population numbered 173,393, inclusive of those dwelling in the cantonments, civil lines, and suburbs. The total was composed of 93,165 males and 80,228 females. The Hindus numbered 95,484, being 52,467 males and 43,017 females; the Muhammadans, 72,519, being 37,329 males and 35,190 females.

There were also 856 Sikhs, 2676 Jains, and 858 'others.' In 1876, the population of Delhi and its suburbs was returned at 160,553.

Institutions, Public Buildings, etc.—The Delhi Institute, a handsome building in the Chándni Chauk, erected by public subscription, with the assistance of a Government grant, contains a Darbár Hall, a museum, a library and reading-room, and the lecture theatre and ball-room of the station. The municipal committee and the honorary magistrates hold their sittings in the Darbár Hall. The official buildings include the District court offices and treasury, just within the Kashmír gate, the *tahsílí* and police offices, the District jail, the lunatic asylum, the hospital, and a dispensary, with two branches. The poor-house is supported by private subscription, supplemented by a grant from the municipal funds. Four churches exist in Delhi, the Station Church, the Roman Catholic and Presbyterian chapels, and a chapel belonging to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The Delhi College, founded in 1792, and supported by the voluntary contributions of Muhammadan gentlemen, acquired a large accession of income in 1829, from the gift of £17,000 by Nawáb Fazl Alí Khán of Lucknow. In 1855, the Educational Department undertook the management. During the Mutiny, the valuable oriental library was plundered, and the building destroyed. A new institution, founded in 1858, was affiliated to the Calcutta University in 1864, and, till lately, educated up to the level of its degrees. In 1883 there were 13 printing-presses at work in the city.

Communications, Trade, etc.—The East Indian Railway enters Delhi by an iron bridge over the Jumna, from Gháziábád Junction in Meerut District. The Punjab Railway also runs its trains over the same branch line. The terminus stands in the city, near the fort. The Rájputána State Railway, running to Ajmere, has its station adjoining that of the other lines. The Grand Trunk Road and other metalled highways lead to all important centres, and the Jumna carries a large portion of the heavy traffic. Delhi possesses a very considerable trade, though the continuation of the great north-western trunk railway on the eastern bank of the river has thrown it somewhat off the modern line of traffic. It still forms, however, the main entrepôt for commerce between Calcutta or Bombay on the one side, and Rájputána on the other. The chief imports include indigo, chemicals, cotton, silk, fibres, grain, oil-seeds, *ghí*, metals, salt, horns, hides, and European piece-goods. The exports consist of the same articles in transit, together with tobacco, sugar, oil, jewellery, and gold or silver lacework. Beyond the borders of the Province, Delhi merchants correspond with those of Jínd, Kábul, Alwar, Bikaner (Bickaneer), Jaipur (Jeypore), and the Doáb; while with all the Punjab towns they have extensive dealings. The Bengal and Delhi banks represent European finance, and several

cotton merchants have agents in the city. The great trade avenue of the Chándni Chauk, already described, is lined with the shops and warehouses of merchants, and is one of the chief sights of interest to the visitor at Delhi. The only manufacture of importance consists of gold, silver, or tinsel filigree work, for which Delhi has long been famous; but the imitation of European models is unfortunately destroying its originality and beauty. The abolition of the Mughal court has also acted prejudicially to this branch of industry. The manufacture of fine muslin is peculiar to Delhi among the Punjab towns, and glazed work, carved work, and shawl-weaving are also carried on. Jewellers and dealers in precious stones throng the Chándni Chauk, and have agents in every European settlement of any importance in Upper India. The internal affairs of the city are managed by a first-class municipality. The municipal income in 1881–82 amounted to £27,656; municipal expenditure, £25,590. In 1882–83, the registration returns of Delhi show an import trade valued at £4,342,500, and an export trade valued at £2,665,000.

Delly.—Hill in the Chirakkal *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency. The correct name is D'Ely (Monte d'Ely of the Portuguese), representing the name of the ancient Malabár State of Eli or Hely, belonging to the Kolattiri Rájás, one of whose seats is close to this hill on the south-east. Lat. 12° 2′ N., long. 75° 14′ E.; height, 800 feet above the sea. Situated on the coast, with creeks on either side, which, joining, make it an island. The fortifications, now in ruins, have been occupied at different periods by Dutch, French, and British troops. Delly is a station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, and a prominent landmark for mariners, being visible in fine weather at 27 miles' distance. The jungle covering the hill and surrounding the base affords cover to large game, *sambhar*, leopards, etc., and is a favourite resort of sportsmen. A project set on foot for the construction of a harbour off this headland was abandoned on account of the enormous expense attending it. Mount Delly was the first Indian land seen by Vasco da Gama.

Demágiri.—Falls on the KARNAPHULI river, in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. They are situated about three days' journey from Barkal, where the Karnaphulí leaves the higher ranges of hills in the District. Above the falls the river is an insignificant stream. A *bázár* or market for india-rubber and other jungle produce opened at the village of Demágiri in 1872, has now (1883) become a flourishing mart.

Denaikankotai (*Denkanikota*).—Town in Osúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 31′ 45″ N., long. 77° 49′ 50″ E.; elevation above sea-level about 3000 feet; population (1881) 3899; houses, 915. Situated 94 miles north of Salem, 16 miles south of

Osúr town, and 10 miles east of Thalli. The head-quarters of the deputy *tahsíldár*, the forest overseer, and inspector of police. Up to 1859, Denaikankotai, the upland division of Osúr, formed a separate *táluk*, now incorporated with Osúr. It was ceded with the Bara Mahál to the British in 1792. The town is well laid out on the side of a hill, up which the principal streets trend. The water-supply is good. Fever is very prevalent. Trade in grain; a former silk industry has died out.

Denwa.—River in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, running in a rough semicircle round the scarped cliffs on the eastern and northern faces of the Mahádeo chain. Rising in lat. 22° 20′ N., and long. 78° 27′ 30″ E., it winds through a deep glen into a small valley shut off from the main Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley by an irregular line of low hills, and entering the hills again towards the west, it meets the Táwa (lat. 22° 34′ N., long. 78° 0′ 30″ E.) a few miles above Bágrá.

Denwa. — Forest in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, covering a level tract of about 100 square miles along the valley of the Denwa river. Abounds in fine *sál* wood.

Deo.—Town in Aurangábád Sub-division, Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 39′ 30″ N., long. 84° 28′ 38″ E. Seat of the Deo Rájás, one of the most ancient families of Behar, who trace their descent from the Ránás of Udaipur (Oodeypore). In the struggle between Warren Hastings and the Rájá of Benares, the Deo Rájá, although too old to take the field in person, joined his forces to those of the British. His next successor mustered a loyal contingent against the mutineers at Sargujá. His son, in turn, rendered good service to us in quelling the Kol insurrection. The Rájá stood boldly forward for the British during the Mutiny of 1857. Four generations of unswerving loyalty have been rewarded by liberal grants of land and villages; and the chief in 1877 received the title of Mahárájá Bahádur, with a Knight Commandership of the Star of India, for his services in 1857. Seat of an old ruined fort and famous temple, at which thousands of people congregate twice a year to hold the *Chhat* festival in honour of the Sun-god.

Deoband.—Southern *tahsíl* of Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a level agricultural plain, traversed by the Eastern Jumna (Jamuná) Canal, and by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Area 387 square miles, of which 309 are cultivated; population (1881) 180,991; land revenue, £30,160; total Government revenue, £33,344; rental paid by cultivators, £38,522; incidence of Government land revenue, 3s. per cultivated acre. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 5 *thánás* or police circles; strength of regular police, 59 men, with 418 village watchmen.

Deoband.—Town and municipality in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Deoband *tahsíl*. Area, 245

acres. Population (1881) 22,116, namely, 9325 Hindus, 12,457 Muhammadans, 332 Jains, and 2 'others.' Situated in lat. 29° 41′ 50″ N., and long. 77° 43′ 10″ E., about 2½ miles to the west of the East Káli Nadí, with which it was formerly connected by a waterway known as the Jor. Half a mile from the town, the Jor expands into a small lake, the Devi-kúnd, whose banks are covered with temples, *ghâts*, and *sati* monuments, much frequented by devout pilgrims. The town has 4 *bázárs*, 3 of which are prosperous and clean. The dominant Musalmán population maintain no less than 42 mosques. Yet Deoband is essentially a town of Hindu origin, with a legendary history of 3000 years. The Pándavas passed their first exile within its precincts, and the fortress was one of the earliest to fall before the famous Musalmán saint, Sálár Masáúd Ghází. The town originally bore the name of Deviban or the Sacred Grove, and a religious assembly still takes place yearly in a neighbouring wood, which contains a temple of Devi. During the Mutiny several disturbances occurred, but they were repressed without serious difficulty. Export trade in grain, refined sugar, and oil; manufacture of fine cloth. Dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, police station, post-office, *tahsíli*. Distant from Muzaffarnagar 15½ miles north. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £1109, of which £870 was derived from taxes, or 9s. 3⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Deocha.—Village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. One of the three or four places in the District where the smelting of iron was formerly carried on. The works, however, have now been stopped, owing to their unremunerative results. The characteristics of the Bírbhúm metal are toughness and malleability.

Deodangar (or *Deodonga*).—Mountain peak in Parla Kimedi estate, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 18° 54′ 35″ N., and long. 84° 6′ 2″ E., 20 miles south-west from Mahendragiri, and 9 from Namanagaram. Height, 4534 feet above the sea; a station of the Trigonometrical Survey.

Deodar (*Diodar*).—Native State under the Political Agency of Pálanpur, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency; bounded on the north by Tharád, on the east by Kánkrej, on the south by Bhábhar and Terwára, and on the west by Suigám and Tharád. Estimated area, 440 square miles; population (1881) 24,061, principally Rájputs and Kolís; number of villages, 66; number of houses, 4651; estimated gross revenue, £2500. The country consists of a flat, open plain, covered with low brushwood. The soil is generally sandy, producing but one crop yearly, and that only of the common sorts of grain. There are no rivers, but numerous ponds and reservoirs, which, as a rule, dry up before the end of March. There are no means of irrigation, and the water, found at a depth of from 40 to 60 feet, is brackish. April, May,

June, and July are excessively hot; rain falls in August and September; October and November are again warm; while the period from December to March is cold and agreeable. Fever is the prevailing disease. Cholera is not infrequent. Coarse cloth, worn by the poorest classes, is manufactured by men of the Dher caste. There are numerous country tracks fit for carts, but no regular road has yet been made. Clarified butter is the only export, which finds a ready market in the neighbouring Districts. The chief holds the title of Thákur, and does not possess a *sanad* authorizing adoption, nor does the succession follow the rule of primogeniture. No military force is maintained. There is only 1 school with 21 pupils. The first relations between Deodar and the British date from 1819. The State depends on the British Government for external defence, but is allowed complete freedom in the internal management of its revenue affairs. The Chief of Deodar exercises the powers of a third-class magistrate, and civil jurisdiction in suits for sums up to £25 in his territory. The principal town of the State, Deodar, is situated in lat. 24° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 49′ E., 45 miles west of Pálanpur.

Deogáon.—Southern *tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of the three *parganás* of Deogáon, Belá Daulatábád, and Biláhbans. Area, 389 square miles in 1881, of which 220 were cultivated; population (1881) 192,374; land revenue, £28,402; total Government revenue, including cesses, £33,527; rental paid by cultivators, £58,395; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 3d. per acre. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court, with 4 *thánás* or police circles; strength of regular police, 53 men, besides 310 village watchmen.

Deogáon.—Town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Deogáon *tahsíl*, situated 28 miles from Azamgarh town, on the metalled road to Benares. Lat. 25° 45′ 50″ N., long. 83° 1′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 3078, namely, 2128 Hindus and 950 Muhammadans; number of houses, 478. It contains a first-class police station, with a cattle pound; sub-post-office, and village school, attended by 63 boys in March 1882. Market held twice a week.

Deogarh.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) Native State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 6846. The residence of a first-class noble of Udaipur, with the title of Ráo, who owns 82 villages. The town is surrounded by a wall, and contains about 3000 houses. The Ráo's palace, with a small fort at each side of it, is on the east of the town.

Deogarh.—Sub-division of the District of the Sántal Parganás, Bengal, containing 1076 villages; houses, 20,777; population (1881) 127,846, namely, 65,237 males and 62,609 females. Hindus numbered 211,270; Muhammadans, 18,815; Christians, 144; Santáls, 18,645; Kols, 2819; and other aborigines, 214. The Sub-division comprises

the 2 *thánás* or police circles of Deogarh and Madhupur, with 2 outpost stations at Sarwan and Sarhet. It contained, in 1881–82, 3 magisterial and revenue courts, a general police force of 172 men, and a village watch of 794 men.

Deogarh. — Head-quarters town of Deogarh Sub-division, Santál Parganás District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 29′ 34″ N., long. 86° 44′ 35″ E., 4 miles east of the Chord line of the East Indian Railway, with which it is connected by a steam tramway. Population (1881) 8005, namely, 7704 Hindus, 297 Muhammadans, and 4 'others;' area of town site, 400 acres. Deogarh is a municipality; revenue (1881–82), £487; average rate of taxation, 2s. per head of population. The principal object of interest is the group of 22 temples dedicated to Siva, which form a centre of pilgrimage for Hindus from all parts of India. The oldest temple is called Baidyanáth, and is said to contain one of the twelve oldest *lingams* of Siva in India. The legend of the temples is told as follows in the *Annals of Rural Bengal*:—'In the old time, a band of Bráhmans settled on the banks of the beautiful highland lake beside which the holy city stands. Around them there was nothing but the forest and mountains in which dwelt the black races. The Bráhmans placed the symbol of their god Siva near the lake, and did sacrifice to it; but the black tribes would not sacrifice to it, but came as before to the three great stones which their fathers had worshipped, and which are to be seen at the western entrance of Deogarh to this day. The Bráhmans, moreover, ploughed the land, and brought water from the lake to nourish the soil; but the hillmen hunted and fished as of old, while their women tilled little patches of Indian corn. But in process of time, the Bráhmans, finding the land good, became slothful, giving themselves up to lust, and seldom calling on their god Siva. This the black tribes, who came to worship the great stones, saw and wondered at more and more, till at last, one of them, by name Baiju, a man of a mighty arm, and rich in all sorts of cattle, became wroth at the lies and wantonness of the Bráhmans, and vowed he would beat the symbol of their god Siva with his club every day before touching food. This he did; but one morning his cows strayed into the forest, and after seeking them all day, he came home hungry and weary, and having hastily bathed in the lake, sat down to supper. Just as he stretched out his hand to take the food, he called to mind his vow, and worn out as he was, he got up, limped painfully to the Bráhmans' idol on the margin of the lake, and beat it with his club. Then suddenly a splendid form, sparkling with jewels, rose from the waters and said: "Behold the man who forgets his hunger and his weariness to beat me, while my priests sleep with their concubines at home, and neither give me to eat nor to drink. Let him ask of me what he will, and it shall be given." Baiju answered, "I am

strong of arm and rich in cattle. I am a leader of my people; what want I more? Thou art called *Náth* (Lord); let me, too, be called Lord, and let my temple go by my name." "Amen," replied the deity; "henceforth thou art not Baiju, but Baijnáth, and my temple shall be called by thy name."

'From that day the place rose into note; merchants, Rájás, and Bráhmans commenced building temples, each vying with the other who would build the handsomest temple near the spot where Mahádeo had appeared to Baiju. The fame of the spot, its sanctity, all became noised abroad throughout the country, until it gradually became a place of pilgrimage—at present, beset by a band of harpies in the shape of Bráhmans, who remorselessly fleece all the poorer pilgrims, beg of the rich with much importunity, and lead the most dissolute and abandoned lives.

'The group of temples are surrounded by a high wall enclosing an extensive courtyard, paved with Chunár freestone; this pavement, the offering of a rich Mírzápur merchant, cost a *lákh* of rupees, and serves to keep the courtyard in a state of cleanliness that could not otherwise be the case. All the temples but three are dedicated to Siva in his form of Mahádeo; the remaining three are dedicated to his wife Parbatí. The male and female temples are connected from the summits with silken ropes, 40 and 50 yards in length, from which depend gaudily-coloured cloths, wreaths, and garlands of flowers and tinsel. At the western entrance to Deogarh town is a masonry platform, about 6 feet in height and 20 feet square, supporting three huge monoliths of contorted gneiss; two are vertical, and the third is laid upon the heads of the two uprights as a horizontal beam. These massive stones are 12 feet in length, quadrilateral in form, and each weighing upwards of 7 tons. By whom, or when, these ponderous stones were erected, no one knows. There is a faint attempt at sculpture at each end of the vertical faces of the horizontal beam, representing either elephants' or crocodiles' heads. A few ruins, like those of ancient Buddhist *vihâras*, stand near the monolithic group.'

Deogarh.—Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. —*See* DEVGADH, sub-division.

Deogarh.—Seaport in Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency.— See DEVGADH, town.

Deogarh. — Village in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; picturesquely situated among the hills, about 24 miles south-west of Chhindwára town. Ancient seat of the midland Gond kingdom. Though now containing only 50 or 60 houses, the traces of foundations in the surrounding jungle, and the numerous remains of wells and tanks, show that the former city must have covered a large area. Deogarh contains several old temples, and on a high peak outside the

village stands a ruined stone fort. All the buildings are constructed of the finest limestone.

Deohrá.—Village in Jubal State, Punjab.—*See* DEORHA.

Deoláli (*Devláli*).—Cantonment in the Násik Sub-division, Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 56′ 20″ N., and long. 73° 51′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 2150, among whom are several families of Deshmukhs, who in former times, as head-men in their villages, had great influence over the Maráthás of the District. The village is about 4 miles south-east of Násik, off the Puna (Poona) road, and has a station, known as Násik Road, on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. During the dry weather months the village is the gathering-place of numerous grain brokers from Bombay. The cantonment is situated about 3½ miles to the south-west. The barracks afford accommodation for 5000 men, and are in continuous occupation during the trooping season, as nearly all drafts are halted here after disembarkation at Bombay, before proceeding farther up country, as well as drafts on their way to England. The situation is healthy, the water good, and the views of the distant ranges of hills remarkably fine. When the barracks are not required for the troops, they have of late years been occupied by the European children of Byculla schools from Bombay, in the rainy season. Post and telegraph offices.

Deoli. — Cantonment in Ajmere-Merwára District, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 75° 25′ E. Height, 1122 feet above sea-level. Estimated population (1881) 2266. Deoli is situated on an open plain, 57 miles south-east of Nasírábád (Nusseerábád). The station was laid out by Major Thom, commanding the late Kotah contingent. Lines exist for a regiment of native infantry and a squadron of native cavalry. The station is garrisoned by the Deoli Irregular Force. It is situated on the triple boundary of Ajmere, Jaipur, and Merwára, and is the head-quarters of the Haráoti Political Agency. Water-supply good. Post-office, dispensary, mission-house, and school.

Deolí.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces, and the third largest cotton mart in the District; 11 miles south-west of Wardhá town. Lat. 20° 39′ N., long. 78° 31′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5126, namely, Hindus, 4597; Muhammadans, 367; Jains, 72; and persons professing aboriginal religions, 90. At the market, held every Friday and Saturday, a brisk traffic is carried on in cattle and agricultural produce. Deolí has two market-places, one specially set apart for the cotton merchants, in which the ground is covered with loose stones, to preserve the cotton from dirt and white ants; in the centre are two raised platforms, on which the cotton is weighed. The general market-place consists of rows of raised and masonry-fronted platforms for the tents and stalls of the traders, with metalled roads between, and a fenced-off ground for the cattle trade. A fine broad street runs through

the middle of the town, lined on both sides by the shops and houses of the resident merchants. Anglo-vernacular town school, Government garden, *sarái* with furnished rooms for Europeans, dispensary, and police station, etc.

Deolia.—Former capital of Partábgarh State, Rájputána. Lat. 24° 30′ N., long. 74° 42′ E. It lies 7½ miles due west of Partábgarh town, at a height of 1809 feet above sea-level, or 149 feet higher than Partábgarh. The site is now almost deserted, and the old palace, originally built by Hari Singh about the middle of the 17th century, is gradually falling to decay. There are several temples still standing, two of which are Jain temples. Among the tanks, the largest is the Teja, which takes its name from Tej Singh, who succeeded his father Bhíka Singh, the original founder of Deolia in 1579. Deolia stands on a steep hill detached from the edge of the plateau, its natural strength commanding the country on every side.

Deonthál.—Village in Simla District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 1′ N., and long. 77° 2′ E., on the route from Subáthu to Simla, 3½ miles north of the former station; situated in a romantic glen, on the banks of the Gambhar river, with cultivated terraces, artificially cut upon the mountain-sides. Elevation above sea-level, 2200 feet. The village is principally known to the country people for its shrine to a local deity, Deo Bijju, situated on the banks of the Gambhar, close to the iron bridge on the Simla road. The temple enjoys a considerable assignment of revenue-free land.

Deonthál.—Hill in Hindúr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 76° 53′ E. A peak of the Maláun range, celebrated as the site of a decisive engagement during the Gúrkha war of 1815. Situated 1¼ mile south of Maláun, between that fort and Surájgarh, both of which were held by the Gúrkhas in April 1815, when General Ochterlony advanced to reduce them. A detachment under Colonel Thompson occupied Deonthál, and repulsed, with great loss, a body of 2000 Gúrkhas, who attacked their position. The engagement is known to the country people as the battle of Lohárgháti, after the celebrated Gúrkha leader Bhagtia Thapa, who, according to some accounts, charged up to the mouth of a gun, and so sacrificed his life. This fight terminated the war, and the Gúrkhas soon afterwards gave up the Hill States, which were thereupon restored to their previous holders.

Deoprayág.—Village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 30° 8′ N., and long. 78° 39′ E., at the confluence of the ALAKNANDA and the BHAGIRATHI rivers; elevation above sea-level, 2266 feet. Below the village the united stream takes the name of the GANGES, and the point of junction forms one of the five sacred halting-places in the pilgrimage which devout Hindus pay to Himáchal. The village is perched 100 feet above the water's edge, on the scarped side

of a mountain, which rises behind it to a height of 800 feet. The great temple of Ráma Chandra, built of massive uncemented stones, stands upon a terrace in the upper part of the town, and consists of an irregular pyramid, capped by a white cupola with a golden ball and spire. The Bráhmans compute its age at 10,000 years. Religious ablutions take place at two basins, excavated in the rock at the point of junction of the holy streams, one on the Alaknanda, known as Basist-kund, and another on the Bhágirathí, called the Brahmakund. An earthquake in 1803 shattered the temple and other buildings; but the damage was subsequently repaired through the munificence of Daulat Ráo Sindhia. The inhabitants consist chiefly of descendants of Bráhmans from the Deccan, who have settled here.

Deora Kot.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; 16 miles from Faizábád town, on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Population (1881), 2256 Hindus and 162 Muhammadans—total, 2418. Temple to Mahádeo.

Deorha.—Village in Jubal State, Punjab, and residence of the Ráná, situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 77° 44′ E., on a tributary of the river Pábar, in a deep valley, terraced for the careful cultivation of rice and other crops. The Ráná's residence is built in partially Chinese style, the lower portion consisting of masonry, while the upper half is ringed round with wooden galleries capped by overhanging eaves. The palace is remarkable for the enormous masses of *deodár* timber used in its construction. Elevation above sea-level, 6550 feet.

Deorí (*Devarí*).—*Zamíndárí* or estate attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces; on the west of the Jonk river. Consists of 50 poor and unproductive villages, the principal of which is situated in lat. 21° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 82° 46′ 30″ E. The chief is an aboriginal Binjwár, and holds his estate under a very ancient grant. Good teak and *sál* forests.

Deorí.—Chief town of a tract of the same name in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 23′ N., and long. 79° 4′ E., about 39 miles south of Ságar, on the Narsinghpur road, at an elevation of 1700 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 7414, namely, Hindus, 5706; Kabírpanthís, 471; Jains, 468; Muhammadans, 663; Christians, 4; and persons following aboriginal religions, 102. Number of houses, 1963. Deorí is sometimes spoken of as Bára Deorí, and was formerly called Rámgarh Ujárgarh. The present name is derived from a temple still largely resorted to. Weekly market; coarse white cloth is manufactured for export. Deorí is essentially an agricultural town, the chief trade being in wheat, which is usually procurable here at a cheaper rate than in other parts of the District. The fort, situated to the west of the town, and still in tolerable preservation, must once have been a place of great strength. The

walls enclose a space of 3 acres, formerly covered with buildings, but now a complete waste. It was built, as it now stands, about 1713, by Durgá Singh, the son of Himmat Singh, the Gond ruler of Gaurjhámar, at the traditional cost of a *lákh* of rupees, and taken from him in 1741 by the troops of the Peshwá. Under the Maráthás, the town flourished. In 1767, the Peshwá bestowed Deori and the Pánch Mahál, or five tracts attached to it, rent free on Dhonda Dattátraya, a Maráthá *pandit*, whose descendant, Rámchandra Ráo, still held it in 1817. In 1813, Zálím Singh, Rájá of Garhákota, plundered the town, and set it on fire; on which occasion 30,000 persons perished. In 1817, the Peshwá ceded Ságar to the British Government, but during the next year the Pánch Mahál, with Deorí, were made over to Sindhia, Rámchandra Ráo receiving another estate in compensation. In 1825 they were again transferred by Sindhia to the British Government for management, and were finally made part of British territory by the treaty of 1860. In 1857, soon after the outbreak of the Mutiny, a Gond named Durjan Singh, who owned Singhpur and other villages near Deorí, seized the fort with a band of rebels; but about a month later he was expelled by Safdár Husáin, the officer in charge of the Deorí police. Deorí has a dispensary, police station, District post-office, and 3 schools—2 for boys and 1 for girls.

Deoria.—Southern *tahsíl* of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of an almost unbroken plain, co-extensive and identical with its single *parganá* Salímpur. Area, 587 square miles, of which 442 are cultivated; population (1881) 481,445; land revenue, £29,686; total Government revenue, £33,266; rental paid by cultivators, £81,447; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 4d. per cultivated acre. In general fertility, this *tahsíl* perhaps excels any other part of the District. It is studded with fine mango groves, but except in the case of a few villages hardly any traces of forest survive. Its Kurmí husbandmen are noted for their laborious and skilful agriculture. The surface is drained by several minor rivers flowing south to meet the Ghágra. The *tahsíl* is almost entirely protected by irrigation from the risks of famine. The soil is for the most part the light loam known as *dorás*. Sugar-cane and poppy are the most valuable products, and potatoes and vegetables are successfully cultivated. In 1883, Deoria *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 7 *thánás* or police stations; strength of regular police, 90 men, with 512 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen.

Deotígarh.—Mountain range in the Province of Assam, forming a portion of the south-eastern boundary of the Nágá Hills District, where it marches with Manipur. The range is really a prolongation of the Barel range, and contains the fine peaks of Khurrho (8804 feet) and Kopamidza (8376 feet). It contains the sources of the Bárak, Dáyang,

and Makru rivers. The lower slopes project in table-shaped masses with grassy slopes.

Dera.—Southern *tahsíl* of Kángra District, Punjab. Area, 502 square miles; population (1881) 121,423; persons per square mile, 242. Males numbered 62,710, and females 58,713. Hindus, 116,067; Sikhs, 275; Muhammadans, 5070; and 'others,' 11. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £11,460. The sub-divisional staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and 2 honorary magistrates, presiding over 3 civil and 3 criminal courts. Number of police stations, 3; strength of regular police, 52 men, with 210 *chaukídárs*.

Dera Ghází Khán. — District in the Deraját Division of the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjab), lying between 28° 27′ and 31° 15′ N. lat., and between 69° 35′ and 70° 59′ E. long. Dera Ghází Khán is the southernmost District of the Deraját Division or Commissionership. It is bounded on the north by Dera Ismáil Khán; on the west by the Suláimán Hills; on the south by the Upper Sind Frontier District; and on the east by the Indus. The District forms a narrow strip of country, about 198 miles long, with an average breadth of 25 miles, lying between the foot of the Suláimán mountains and the river Indus. Area, 4517 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 363,346 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of DERA GHAZI KHAN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Dera Ghází Khán consists of a narrow strip of sandy lowland, shut in between the Suláimán Hills and the bank of the river Indus. On the west, the mountains rise in a succession of knife-like ridges towards the hilly plateau beyond the frontier, and give shelter to independent tribes of Baluchí origin. From their feet, the plain slopes gradually eastward, in a dreary and monotonous level, only broken from time to time by sandy undulations, and composed of a hard clay which requires profuse irrigation before it will yield to the arts of the cultivator. Numerous torrents pour down from the hilly barrier on the west, but soon sink into the thirsty soil, or are checked by artificial embankments for the water-supply of the surrounding fields. The Kaha and the Sanghar alone possess perennial streams, all the minor watercourses drying up entirely during the summer months. The whole western half of the District, known as the Pachád, is then totally deserted, and its Baluchí inhabitants seek pasturage for their flocks either among the hills beyond the frontier, or in the moister lands which fringe the bank of the Indus. Water can only be procured from wells in this arid region at a depth of 250 or 300 feet. Between the Pachád and the river, a barren belt of desert sand intervenes—without water, without inhabitants, and without vegetation. Of late years, attempts have been made by Government to sink wells, but the expense of such works is very great. An

artesian well was recently sunk to supply water to the military post at Rájanpur, which is 388 feet deep. Other similar wells are in course of construction at selected places on the frontier. As the plain still slopes eastward, it reaches at last a level at which the waters of the Indus begin to fertilize the sandy soil. This tract is known as the Sind or Indus country, owing to its being irrigated by canals or wells which owe their water to moisture imparted by the river. This tract supports a far denser population than the dreary Pachád. It is occupied, for the most part, by Játs, Hindus, and miscellaneous tribes of Baluchís. The country rapidly assumes a fresher and greener aspect, a few trees appear upon the scene, and human habitations grow more and more numerous as the cultivated plain approaches the Indus itself. Much of the land in the lower slopes lies open to direct inundation from its floods, while the higher tracts are irrigated by canals and wells. This portion of the District comprises the greater part of the whole cultivated area, and has also considerable tracts of jungle under the management of the Forest Department. Date palms grow luxuriantly in picturesque groves, and shelter the town and cantonment of Dera Ghází Khán with their pleasant shade. With these exceptions, however, the District is almost destitute of trees, and even in the most favoured parts the jungle seldom attains a height of more than 12 or 15 feet. The wood serves chiefly as fuel for the steamers on the Indus. While the two great natural divisions of the country are those universally known as the Pachád and the Sindh, other minor tracts exist, such as the arid *dánda* tract between the Pachád and the Sind, which lies beyond the reach of the canals on the one side, and of the hill streams on the other. Then there are the Kálápání tracts in the Sangarh and Jámpur *tahsíls*, so called because they are irrigated by the blue-black water of two perennial hill streams; and the Garkháb tract in Rájanpur *tahsíl*, which is annually swept by inundations of the Indus. The main irrigation canals are 15 in number, two under private management, and the remainder controlled by the Irrigation Department. The principal peaks of the Suláimán mountains are at Ek Bhaí opposite Sakpi Sarwar, with an elevation of 7462 feet; the Gandhárí peak opposite Rojhah is also lofty, but its exact height has not been ascertained. To the south of Drágul is the Márí mountain, the summit of which forms a large and fairly level plateau. This, and the Gáganka-Thal plateau below Ek Bhaí, are now approached by good roads, and are occupied occasionally during the hot weather months by officers from Rájanpur and Dera Ghází Khán. The temperature of the higher parts of the Suláimán Hills is exceedingly pleasant at the time when the heat of the plains is most trying. The most important of the 92 passes leading from the

District, are those of Sanghar, Sakhi Sarwar, Chắchar, Kaha, and Sorí. They are all held by independent Baluchís, responsible to the British Government for the police duties of their respective highways, in return for which service they receive a money allowance from the Government of about £500 a year. The Sanghar pass leads into the Bozdár country; the Sakhi Sarwar pass into the Khatrán and Lúni-Pathán country; the Kaha and Chắchar into the Khatrán, Márí, and Buglí; and the Sorí pass into the Mári and Buglí country. A chain of forts along the frontier road are occupied by detachments of cavalry or infantry from the Dera Ghází Khán or Rájanpur garrisons, or by the Baluchí frontier militia.

The Indus forms the eastern boundary of the District. In Sanghar *tahsíl* it flows under a high bank, but elsewhere the level of the river is to all appearance very little below that of the surrounding country. The river is constantly changing its course. At one time the Sítpur *tahsíl*, which now forms part of Muzaffargarh District, was on the Dera Ghází Khán side of the river; and the former heads of the Dhúndi, Kutáb, and Kádra canals can still be traced in Muzaffargarh, whilst the canals themselves are now on the Dera Ghází Khán side. Below the confluence of the Panjnád with the Indus, a series of large islands have been formed in the Indus, which flows now on one side, and the next year on the other side of these islands; and as the river here forms the boundary between Dera Ghází Khán District and Baháwalpur State, many disputes necessarily arise as to the ownership of land between the villages on either bank. Inundations from the Indus of a disastrous character frequently occur, which are locally known as *chal*. Beginning to rise after the melting of the interior snows in June, the river gradually swells till it fills its channel, in some places as much as nine miles in width, and finds an outlet at certain points into the country beyond, throwing it under water for miles around. The river usually rises about 8½ feet in the inundation season, but occasionally even higher. The greatest floods on record are those of 1833 and 1841. In the latter year the river is said to have travelled as far as Torbela with a velocity of 11 miles an hour, and to have risen to a height of 20 feet at one of the widest parts of the Shayor valley. In 1856, a flood occurred from which the people still calculate their dates. The station and cantonment of Dera Ghází Khán was swept away by this flood, which spread some 10 miles inland. These inundations benefit the villages near which they take their rise, and in which they deposit their silt. But they impoverish other villages which they pass over after having left their silt; and in those villages in which the water remains stagnant, *reh* efflorescence soon makes its appearance.

Among minerals, iron, copper, and lead are said to exist in

the hills, but no mines are worked. Coal of a good quality has been discovered in the hills a few miles beyond the border, but not in veins of sufficient thickness to render its working in any way remunerative. Alum is excavated and refined in the extreme south of the District. Earth, salt, and saltpetre are also manufactured. Multáni *matti*, a saponine earth, of a drab colour and somewhat resembling fuller's earth, is found in the hills, and is used both medicinally and as a substitute for soap. True fuller's earth is also found. *Sajji*, a coarse carbonate of soda, is manufactured from the burnt ashes of a bush called *khar* (Salsola griffithii). The jungle products include—*munj* grass, which is found in great abundance in the tracts exposed to the inundations of the Indus. *Shakh*, a gum obtained from the tamarisk, is largely collected for medicinal use as a cooling beverage. The wild animals comprise tigers, deer, wild hog, wild asses, and numerous feathered game, including black and grey partridges, duck, teal, sand grouse, etc. Fish of many sorts abound in the Indus.

History.—The tract between the Suláimán mountains and the Indus appears to have been the seat of a Hindu population from a very remote date. Many towns in the District have close associations with Hindu legend, and especially with the mythical Punjab hero, Rasálu. Ruins still exist at Sanghar and elsewhere, which probably date back to a period earlier than the Muhammadan invasion of India; while tradition connects the surrounding country with the ancient kingdom of Multán (Mooltan), of which it historically forms a part. Like the rest of that territory, it fell in the year 712 A.D. before the young Arab conqueror Muhammad Kásim, the first Musalmán invader of India. Throughout the period of Muhammadan supremacy, the District continued to rank as an outlying appanage of the Multán Province. About the year 1450 A.D., the Náhírs, a branch of the Lodí family, connected with the dynasty which then sat upon the throne of Delhi, succeeded in establishing an independent government at Kin and Sítpur; the former town lying in the southern portion of the present District, while the latter, by a change in the shifting channel of the Indus, has since been transferred to the eastern bank of the river. The Náhír dynasty soon extended their dominions for a considerable distance through the Deraját; but as time went on, their power was circumscribed by the encroachments of Baluchí mountaineers upon the western frontier. Malik Sohráb Baluchí, the first of these hardy invaders, was followed by the Mahráni chieftain Hájí Khán, whose son, Ghází Khán, gave his name to the city which he founded, and to the modern District which lies around it. This event must have taken place before the end of the 15th century. The new rulers at first held their dominions as vassals of the Multán Government, but

in the third generation they found themselves strong enough to throw off the yoke and proclaim their independence of the Lodí court. Eighteen princes of the same family held successively the lower Deraját, and bore alternately the names of their ancestors Hájí and Ghází Khán. In the extreme south, however, the Náhír rulers continued to maintain their position until the early part of the 18th century. Under the house of Akbar, the dynasty of Ghází Khán made a nominal submission to the Mughal Empire; but though they paid a quit-rent, and accepted their lands in *jágír*, their practical independence remained undisturbed. During the decline of the Mughals, and the rise of the rival Duráni Empire, the country west of the Indus came into the hands of Nádír Sháh in 1739. The twentieth successor of Ghází Khán then sat upon the throne of his barren principality; but having made submission to the new suzerain, he was duly confirmed in the possession of his family estates. He died shortly after, however, leaving no heirs; and Dera Ghází Khán became once more, in name at least, an integral portion of the Múltán Province. The date of this event, though by no means free from doubt, may be placed in or near the year 1758. About the same time, the District appears to have been overrun and conquered by the Kalhora kings of Sind, whose relations with the feudatories of Ahmad Sháh Duráni in this portion of their dominions are far from clear. In any case, Ahmad Sháh's authority would seem to have been restored about 1770 by one Mahmúd Gújar, an active and enterprising governor, who did good service in excavating canals, and bringing the waste land into cultivation. A series of Afghán rulers succeeded, under the Duráni Emperors; but this period was much disturbed by internecine warfare among the Baluchí clans, who now held the whole District. Before long, all semblance of order disappeared, and a reign of anarchy set in, which only terminated with British annexation and the introduction of a firm and peaceable government. Canals fell into disrepair; cultivation declined; the steady and industrious amongst the peasantry emigrated to more prosperous tracts; and the whole District sank into a condition more wretched and desolate than that which had prevailed up to the accession of Ghází Khán, three centuries before.

The town of Dera Ghází Khán was founded by Ghází Khán, and it was not till his time that the District acquired its present name. Ghází Khán died in 1494, and was succeeded by his son Hájí Khán. For fifteen generations successive Ghází Kháns and Hájí Kháns ruled at Dera Ghází. The village round the town of Dera Ghází is thus Hájí Ghází. The first grant of the family estates by way of imperial *jágír* is said to have been made by the Emperor Humáyún. Hájí Khán II., son of Ghází Khán I., made further acquistions of territory towards the south, in addition to

the estates acquired by his father and grandfather; and during the distracted state of India which preceded the consolidation of the Empire under Akbar, the family maintained itself in complete independence. It was subsequently reduced to a comparatively dependent position, holding its estates merely as a *jágír* under the Empire. In 1700, towards the close of Aurangzeb's reign, one of the Ghází Kháns rebelled, and was defeated by the Governor of Multán. The last Ghází Khán died leaving no direct male heir; in 1739, Muhammad Sháh the Persian ceded all the country west of the Indus to Nadír Sháh. The kings of Khorasan were therefore the actual rulers of Dera Ghází Khán for thirty-seven years before the dynasty became extinct. Nádír Sháh was killed in 1747, and was succeeded by Ahmad Sháh Duráni, who was followed by a series of short-reigned Duráni and Barakzai princes. Meanwhile the Sikh power had been rising in the Punjab proper, and culminated under Ranjít Singh in a great and consolidated empire. In 1819, the aggressive Mahárájá extended his conquests in this direction beyond the Indus, and annexed the southern portion of the present District. Sádik Muhammad Khán, Nawáb of Baháwalpur, received the newly-acquired territory as a fief, on payment of an annual tribute to Lahore. In 1827, the Nawáb overran the northern portion of the District, all of which passed under the suzerainty of the Sikhs. Three years later, however, in 1830, he was compelled to give up his charge in favour of General Ventura, the partisan leader of the Lahore forces. In 1832, the famous Sáwan Mall of Multán (*see* MULTAN DISTRICT) took over the District in farm; and his son Mulráj continued in possession until the outbreak of hostilities with the British in 1848. At the close of the second Sikh war in the succeeding year, Dera Ghází Khán passed, with the remainder of the Punjab Province, into the hands of our Government. Since that period, an active and vigilant administration has preserved the District from any more serious incident than the occasional occurrence of a frontier raid. The wild hill-tribes have been brought into comparative submission, while the restoration of the canals has once more made tillage profitable, and largely increased the number of inhabitants. The Mutiny of 1857 found Dera Ghází Khán so peacefully disposed, that the protection of the frontier and the civil station could be safely entrusted to a home levy of 600 men; while the greater part of the regular troops were withdrawn for service in the field elsewhere. On the whole, the District may be cited as a striking instance of the prosperity and security afforded by a strong but benevolent Government in a naturally barren tract, formerly desolated by border strife and internal anarchy.

Population.—In 1854 the number of inhabitants was returned at 238,964. In 1868 it had reached a total of 308,840, showing an

increase for the fourteen years of 69,876 persons, or 29·24 per cent. The last Census, that of 1881, taken over an area of 4517 square miles, showed a total of 363,346 persons dwelling in 603 villages or towns, and in 58,543 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 80; villages per square mile, ·13; houses per square mile, 18; persons per village, 602; persons per house, 6·2. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 200,667; females, 162,679; proportion of males, 55·23 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were 46,697 Hindus; 315,240 Muhammadans; 1326 Sikhs; 82 Christians; and 1 unspecified. The Musalmán element thus amounted to 86·77 per cent. of the whole population, while the proportion of Hindus and Sikhs together was only 13·24 per cent. Among the Muhammadans, 160,405 are classed as Játs, a term which appears to include all the agricultural tribes, once Hindu, but long since converted to the faith of the dominant races from the west, who have more recently settled in the District. Foremost among the latter in social and political importance stand the different Baluchí tribes, who in 1881 numbered 115,749, or 31·86 per cent. of the whole population. A few Patháns (9871) and Sayyids represent the later colonists in the District. The geographical boundary between the Pathán and Baluchí races in the hills nearly corresponds with the northern limit of the District; and it follows that the Baluchís are more numerous in Dera Ghází Khán than in any other portion of the Punjab. The settlers, in the western half of the District especially, retain in a very marked manner the tribal organization of their native hills. Each clan owes allegiance to a hereditary chieftain (*tumandár*), assisted by a council of head-men who represent the sub-divisions of the clan. Though shorn of certain monarchical prerogatives by the necessity of submission to an alien rule, the influence of the *tumandárs* still ranks paramount for good or for evil; and our Government has found it desirable to rule the clans through their means. They receive official recognition, and enjoy certain assignments of land revenue, fixed in 1873 at £3600. The Baluchís, inured to toil, and endowed with great powers of endurance, have a special hatred of control, and can scarcely be induced to enlist in our army, or to take any regular service. The mass of the population live in small hamlets, scattered over the face of the country; and a vast majority subsist by agricultural or pastoral pursuits. For further information regarding the Baluchí tribes, see the article BALUCHISTAN, vol. ii. pp. 27–40.

The District contains five municipal towns, only two of which have a population exceeding 5000—DERA GHAZI KHAN, 22,309; DAJAL, including Naushahra, with which it forms one municipality, 7913; JAMPUR, 4697; RAJANPUR, 4932; and MITHANKOT, 3353.

Dera Ghází Khán, the civil and military head-quarters, ranks as a trading mart of considerable activity. Rájanpur, in the south of the District, 73 miles from head-quarters, is the station of an Assistant Commissioner and of a regiment of cavalry. Mithankot, once a busy commercial centre, has now sunk into the position of a quiet country town. Several Muhammadan shrines of great reputed sanctity are scattered over the District, the principal being that of Sakhi Sarwar, which is resorted to by Muhammadans and Hindus alike, and is a curious mixture of both styles of architecture. One or more annual fairs are held at each of these shrines and holy places.

Agriculture.—The cultivated area of Dera Ghází Khán has increased enormously since the introduction of British rule. Early returns show the total area under tillage at 261,065 acres in 1849, and at 276,981 acres in 1859; while the Punjab Administration Report for 1880–81 gives a total cultivation of 1,086,413 acres, of which 438,205 received artificial irrigation, namely, 270,158 acres by Government works, and 168,047 by private individuals. The staple crops of the District consist of wheat and *joár.* The former ranks as the principal produce of the *rabí* or spring harvest in the Sind; the latter is grown as a *kharíf* or autumn crop in the Pachád. Barley, poppy, gram, peas, turnips, and mustard also cover a considerable area in the *rabí;* while rice, pulses, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and oil-seeds form the chief supplementary items of the *kharíf.* The estimated area under the principal crops is thus returned in 1881:—Wheat, 180,781 acres; rice, 22,939 acres; other cereals, such as *joár* (great millet), *bájra* (spiked millet), *kangní* (Italian millet), *makai* (Indian corn), *jao* (barley), 195,486 acres; pulses, including gram (Cicer arietinum), *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius), *matar* (peas), *mash* (Phaseolus radiatus), *mung* (Phaseolus mungo), *masur* (Ervum lens), *arhar* (Cajanus indicus), 18,314 acres; oil-seeds, including *sarson* or mustard, *til* (Sesamum orientale), and *tárámira* (Sinapis eruca), 28,841 acres; cotton, 99,545 acres; and indigo, 11,655 acres. Throughout the whole District, cultivation depends entirely upon artificial irrigation, derived from three sources,—the hill streams, the wells, and the inundation canals from the Indus. The last begin to fill, in prosperous years, towards the end of June, when the sowings at once commence. The Pachád can only produce a good autumn crop if the hill torrents fill some time between May and August; but when rain does not fall until September, the cultivator abandons all hope of the *kharíf,* and sows his land with wheat or some other spring staple. The number of main channels drawing their supplies directly from the Indus is 15, two of which belong to private proprietors, while the remainder are controlled and kept in order by the State. A well, unaided by canal supplies, suffices to irrigate an average of 10 acres; with the assistance of a canal, it can

water an area of 30 acres. In the latter case, however, only half the land is cultivated at a time, and each field lies fallow after every second crop. The average out-turn of wheat or *joár* per acre amounts to 7½ cwts.; that of cotton to 1 cwt. 14 lbs. of cleaned fibre. The agricultural stock in the District is approximately estimated as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 81,901; horses, 2913; ponies, 450; donkeys, 4722; sheep and goats, 91,015; camels, 6930; ploughs, 12,125. The District has no village communities in the sense which the term usually implies in India. The villages consist of holdings classified into mere artificial groups for purposes of revenue collection. The only bond of union between the proprietors consists in their joint responsibility for the payment of taxes. The proportion of land belonging to each proprietor is stated by wells or fractions of a well in the Sind, and by *bandhs* or irrigation embankments in the Pachád. Eight wells form a large holding, while one-fourth of a well would be the smallest amount capable of supporting a cultivating proprietor. Rents usually take the shape of a charge in kind upon the produce. Tenants-at-will pay from one-seventh to one-half the gross out-turn; a quarter may be regarded as the average. Agricultural labourers receive their wages in kind, to the value of from 4½d. to 6d. per diem. Skilled workmen in the towns earn from 1s. to 1s. 3d. per diem. Of a total population of 363,340, 179,821 were returned in 1881 as male agriculturists, of whom 54,364 were above 15 years of age. Total area paying Government revenue or quit-rent, 3944 square miles, of which 1404 square miles are cultivated, and 1580 square miles cultivable. Total Government revenue, including rates and cesses, £44,364; estimated value of rental paid by cultivators, £92,395. The prevailing prices per cwt. for the principal agricultural staples in 1880–81, are returned as follows:—Wheat, 9s. 8d.; flour, 11s. 2d.; best rice, 17s. 11d.; barley, 6s. 8d.; gram, 8s. 1d.; *joár*, 6s. 9d.; *bájra*, 8s. 9d.; cleaned cotton, £2, 11s. 2d.; and sugar (refined), £2, 16s.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Petty Hindu merchants, settled in almost every village, entirely control the trade of the District. Their dealings centre chiefly in the commercial town of Dera Ghází Khán. The Indus forms the high road of traffic. Mithankot, just below its junction with the united stream of the Punjab rivers, was long the mercantile capital of the District; but a diversion of the navigable channel 5 miles to the east has turned the course of traffic to the head-quarters town. Thence, indigo, opium, dates, wheat, cotton, barley, millet, *ghí*, and hides, are despatched down the river to Sukkur (Sakkar) and Karáchí (Kurrachee). The annual value of the opium exported amounts to £2500; that of indigo probably exceeds £10,000. The grain of all kinds may be estimated at £60,000. Sugar, gram, woollen goods, English piece-goods and broadcloth,

metals, salt, and spices form the principal items of the import trade. Little traffic at present exists with the country beyond the hills, owing to the turbulence of the independent Baluchí tribes. Commercial importance has lately attached to the annual religious gathering at the shrine of a Muhammadan saint, Sakhi Sarwar. The chief means of communication consist of—the Frontier military road, which passes through the District from north to south; the river road from Dera Ghází Khán to Sukkur; and the road from the head-quarters station to Multán, crossing the Indus at the Kureshi ferry. None of these are metalled, but they cross the canals and hill-streams for the most part by means of bridges. The total length of unmetalled roads within the District amounted in 1882 to 1565 miles. The length of navigable river communication is 235 miles.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with a judicial Assistant Commissioner, two Assistant and one extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. The total amount of revenue (excluding income-tax) raised in the District in 1861–62 was returned at £37,182. In 1882–83 it had reached the sum of £49,739. The land-tax forms the principal item of receipt, yielding (exclusive of canal collections) in 1882–83 a total of £35,020, or four-fifths of the whole. The other chief items are stamps and excise. In 1882–83, the District contained 16 civil and revenue courts of all grades, and 18 magistrates' courts. The regular or Imperial police in 1882 consisted of a force of 394 men, of whom 303 were available for protective or defensive duties, the remainder being employed as guards over jails, treasuries, etc. There is also a river patrol of 28, and a municipal force of 84 men. As regards crime, out of 896 'cognisable' cases investigated during the year, convictions were obtained in 436; the total number of persons arrested in connection with these cases was 1226, of whom 803 were finally convicted. Cattle theft is described as the normal crime of the District, an offence which, owing to the large tracts of waste and jungle, is very difficult to deal with; 192 cases occurred in 1881. Murder is also a common offence; 19 such cases occurred in 1881, of which conviction was obtained in 10. The District jail at Dera Ghází Khán, a large and substantial building, had a daily average number of 372 prisoners in 1880. The Rájanpur lock-up during the same year had a daily average of 80 inmates. The military force maintained in the District for the protection of the frontier comprises 2 regiments of infantry and 2 of cavalry. One regiment of cavalry and one company of infantry are stationed at Rájanpur; and the remainder at Dera Ghází Khán. A force of mounted militia, levied among the Baluchí tribes of the Pachád, assists the regular troops in the maintenance of order.

In 1882-83, the District had only 40 regularly-inspected schools, with a total roll of 1895 scholars. There were also, according to Dr. G. F. Leitner's Report, a total of 179 indigenous village schools, in which education of some sort is imparted to about 1650 children. The five municipalities of Dera Ghází Khán, Jámpur, Rájanpur, Mithankot, and Dájal with Naushahra, had an aggregate revenue in 1882-83 of £4148, and an expenditure of £5255; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 11d. per head of municipal population.

Medical Aspects. — Dera Ghází Khán cannot be considered an unhealthy District, although the heat in summer often reaches an intense degree. The annual rainfall for the eighteen years ending 1880 averaged only 7·06 inches, the maximum during that period being 10·8 inches in 1869-70. The total rainfall in 1880 was only 4·2 inches. Fever of the ordinary type prevails in August and September, when cold nights alternate with hot days. In June and July, a scorching and unhealthy wind sweeps down from the hills into the Pachád. Four charitable dispensaries gave relief in 1881 to 52,781 persons, of whom 1381 were in-patients; total expenditure on dispensaries in 1881, £1109, of which £610 was derived from local sources, and £468 contributed by Government. [For further information regarding Dera Ghází Khán District, see the forthcoming *Punjab Gazetteer;* also Mr. F. W. R. Fryer's *Report on the Settlement Operations* from 1869 to 1874; together with the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881, and the *Punjab Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Dera Ghází Khán.—*Tahsíl* of Dera Ghází Khán District, Punjab, consisting of a narrow strip of land between the Indus and the Suláiman mountains. Lat. 29° 36′ to 30° 30′ 30″ N., and long. 70° 11′ to 70° 59′ E. Area, 1362 square miles. Population (1881) 159,733, namely, males 88,120, and females 71,613. Persons per square mile, 117. Hindus numbered 22,750; Sikhs, 525; Muhammadans, 136,388; and 'others,' 70. Revenue of the *tahsíl,* £18,426. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant, 2 Assistant or extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 *tahsíldár,* 1 *munsif,* and 3 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 8 civil and 8 criminal courts. Number of police stations, 4; strength of regular police, 105 men; with 68 village watchmen.

Dera Ghází Khán.—Town and administrative head-quarters of Dera Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 3′ N., and long. 70° 50′ E. Situated in lat. 30° 3′ 57″ N., and long. 70° 49′ E., about 2 miles west of the present bed of the Indus, which once flowed past its site. Population (1881) 22,309, namely 10,140 Hindus, 11,687 Muhammadans, 413 Sikhs, and 69 Christians. Number of houses, 3159. The Kasturi Canal skirts its eastern border,

fringed with thickly-planted gardens of mango trees; while *gháts* line the banks, thronged in summer by numerous bathers. Above the town stands a massive dam, erected in 1858 as a protection against inundations. A mile to the west lies the civil station, and the cantonments adjoin the houses of the District officials. The original station stood to the east of the town, but disappeared during the flood of 1857. The town owes its foundation to Ghází Khán Mahráni, a Baluch settler in the District, who made himself independent in this remote tract about the year 1475. It has continued ever since to be the seat of local administration under the successive Governments which have ruled the surrounding country. (*See* DERA GHAZI KHAN DISTRICT.) The court-house occupies the reputed site of Ghází Khán's garden; while the *tahsílí* and police office replace an ancient fort, levelled at the time of the English annexation. The other public buildings include a town hall, school-house, dispensary, staging bungalow, and post-office. A handsome *bázár* has several good shops, built on a uniform plan. Many large and striking mosques adorn the town, the chief being those of Ghází Khán, Abdul Jawár, and Chútá Khán. The Sikhs converted three of them into temples of their own faith during their period of supremacy. Two Muhammadan saints are also honoured with shrines, and the earlier religion has four temples dedicated to Hindu gods. The trade of Dera Ghází Khán is not large: exports—indigo, opium, dates, wheat, cotton, barley, millet, *ghí*, and hides; imports—sugar, Kábul fruits, English piece-goods, metal, salt, and spices. Silk and cotton manufacture, formerly thriving, has now declined. Weekly fair on the banks of the canal during the summer months. Ordinary garrison, 1 cavalry and 2 infantry regiments of the Punjab Frontier force. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £2619; expenditure, £3380; average incidence of municipal taxation, 2s. $4\frac{1}{8}$d. per head.

Dera Ismáil Khán. — District in the Deraját Division of the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 30° 36′ and 32° 33′ N. lat., and between 70° 14′ and 72° 2′ E. long.; with an area of 9296 square miles, and a population (1881) of 441,649 persons. Dera Ismáil Khán forms the central District of the Deraját Division. It consists of a strip of country stretching from the foot of the Sulámán Hills, across the hills into the Thál of the Sind Ságar Doáb. It is bounded on the north by Bannu District; on the east by Jhang and Sháhpur; on the south by Dera Ghází Khán and Muzaffargarh; and on the west by the Sulámán mountains, which separate India from Afghánistán. Its average length from north to south is about 110 miles, and its average width about 80 miles. It is divided into 5 *tahsíls*, of which that of Tank occupies the extreme north-western corner of the District. The remainder of the Trans-Indus tract is

divided between the *tahsíls* of Dera Ismáil Khán and Kulachí. The cis-Indus area is divided by a line running east and west into the two *tahsíls* of Bhakkar and Leiah, the former comprising the northern portion. These two *tahsíls* constitute a separate Sub-division, and are in charge of an Assistant Commissioner stationed at Bhakkar. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at the town of DERA ISMAIL KHAN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Dera Ismáil Khán, a purely artificial creation for administrative purposes, comprises two distinct tracts of country, stretching from the Suláimán mountains across the valley of the Indus far into the heart of the Sind Ságar Doáb. The channel of the great river thus divides it into two sections, each of which possesses a history and physical characteristics of its own. To the west, the Suláimán mountains rise barren and precipitous above the hard alluvial plain, ascending in a series of parallel ridges, which culminate nearly opposite Dera Ismáil Khán in the two peaks of Takht-i-Suláimán, 11,295 and 11,070 feet respectively above the level of the sea. The range is the home of various independent tribes, responsible to our Government for the maintenance of peace upon the frontier, and the prevention of robbery among the passes. Numerous mountain torrents score the hill-sides, and cut for themselves deep and intricate ravines in the plain below; but little of their water reaches the Indus even in times of heavy flood. Only one among them, the Gumál or Lúni, is a perennial stream. On the north, some low and stony spurs project into the valley, till finally the Shaikh-Budín range closes the view upward and separates this District from that of Bannu. Near the Indus, a third rugged group, the Khisor Hills, intervenes between the Shaikh-Budín system and the river, which is overhung by its eastern face in a precipitous mass, some 3000 feet above the sea. From this point the plain stretches southward along the river-side, till it merges in the similar tract of DERA GHAZI KHAN DISTRICT. Sloping downwards from the feet of the Suláimán range through an intermediate barren belt, it gradually attains a lower level, at which percolation from the Indus makes its influence felt. Cultivation soon becomes general, and the soil of this lowland tract supports a population of considerable density. In the summer months, the river, rising 6 feet above its cold-weather level, submerges the country for 11 miles inland; while canals and natural channels convey its fertilizing waters to a still greater distance from the main stream on either side. The principal channel shifts from year to year, causing great alteration in the conditions of agriculture. The eastern or Sind Ságar portion of the District consists in part of a similar irrigated lowland, lying along the edge of the Indus. The limit of this favoured tract is marked by an abrupt bank, the outer margin of a high plateau, the Thál, which stretches across the Doáb to the valley

of the Jehlam (Jhelum). Below this bank, wide patches of closely-cultivated soil, interspersed with stretches of rank grass, or broken by occasional clumps of trees, meet the eye; but above appears the ordinary monotony of a Punjab desert, extending in a level surface of sand, or rolling into rounded hillocks and long undulating dunes. Yet the soil beneath is naturally rich; and unless the rainfall entirely fails, a yearly crop of grass pushes its way through the sandy covering, and suffices to support vast flocks of sheep and cattle. Patches of scrubby jungle here and there diversify the scene; while the coarse vegetation of the general surface affords excellent fodder for camels. Cultivation, however, can only be carried on by means of laborious artificial irrigation from deep wells, and nothing but the brave and steady industry of the inhabitants renders life possible in this sterile region.

Iron is produced in the Wazírí hills, but no metals exist within the District itself. Traces of lignite and a little alum, naphtha, yellow ochre, and saltpetre are found in the Shaikh-Budín range. *Sajji*, an impure carbonate of soda, is sometimes manufactured for sale, but chiefly by washermen for their private use. No quarries of any sort are worked. The hills supply abundance of limestone for building purposes. As regards wild animals, the antelope is unknown, and only a few ravine and hog-deer are found. Game is rapidly disappearing, owing to the increase of cultivation. The tiger is extinct; and even wild hog are only to be found in certain outlying tracts. The wild ass (*ghor-khor*) has entirely disappeared from the District. Hares were formerly numerous, but were drowned out during a high flood in 1874, and hardly one is now left. Occasionally wolves, foxes, and jackals are found, and a few leopards haunt the Shaikh-Budín hills. Otters are common in the Indus, where they are caught by the Kehars, a wandering tribe, and used in hunting fish. A species of field mouse is often very destructive to the crops. Game birds consist of wild duck, wild goose, sand grouse, quail, grey and black partridges, *chikor*, snipe, etc. The great bustard is occasionally met with, and the small bustard affords good sport for hawking. The fisheries are confined to the Indus and its tributaries.

History.—The massive ruins of two ancient forts, overlooking the Indus from projecting spurs of the northern hills, alone bear witness to an early civilisation in the Upper Deraját. Both bear the name of Káfir Kot (infidel's fort), probably connecting their origin with the Græco-Bactrian period of Punjab history. The plain portion of the District contains none of those ancient mounds which elsewhere mark the sites of ruined cities. But the earliest traditions current in this remote quarter refer to its later colonization by immigrants from the south, who found the country entirely unoccupied. The Baluchí

settlers, under Málik Sohráb, arrived in the District towards the end of the 15th century. His two sons, Ismáil Khán and Fateh Khán, founded the towns which still bear their names. The Hot family, as this Baluchí dynasty was termed, in contradistinction to the Mahráni house of Dera Ghází Khán, held sway over the upper Deraját for 300 years, with practical independence, until reduced to vassalage by Ahmad Sháh Duráni about 1750 A.D. Beyond the Indus, too, the first important colony settled under the auspices of another Baluchí chieftain, whose descendants, surnamed Jaskáni, placed their capital for nearly three centuries at Bhakkar in the eastern lowlands of the great river. Farther south, the family of Ghází Khán established several settlements, the chief of which gathered round the town of Leiah. About the year 1759, the Kháns of Leiah were involved in the conquest of the parent family by the Kalhora kings of Sind. Shortly afterwards, Ahmad Sháh Duráni became supreme over the whole of the present District. In 1792, Sháh Zamán, then occupying the Duráni throne, conferred the government of this dependency, together with the title of Nawáb, upon Muhammad Khán, an Afghán of the Sadozái tribe, related to the famous governors of Multán (Mooltan). Armed with the royal grant, Muhammad Khán made himself master of almost all the District, and built himself a new capital at Mankerá. He died in 1815, after a prosperous reign of twenty-three years. His grandson, Sher Muhammad Khán, succeeded to the principality, under the guardianship of his father, the late Nawáb's son-in-law. Ranjít Singh, however, was then engaged in consolidating his power by the subjection of the lower Punjab. Nothing daunted by the difficulties of a march across the desert, the great Sikh leader advanced upon Mankerá, sinking wells as he approached for the supply of his army. After a siege of twenty-five days, the fortress surrendered, and the whole Sind Ságar Doáb lay at the mercy of the conqueror. The young Nawáb retired beyond the Indus to Dera Ismáil Khán, retaining his dominions in the Deraját for fifteen years, subject to a quit-rent to the Sikhs, but otherwise holding the position of a semi-independent prince. His tribute, however, fell into arrears; and in 1836, Náo Nihál Singh crossed the Indus at the head of a Sikh army, and annexed the remaining portion of the District to the territories of Lahore. The Nawáb received an assignment of revenue for his maintenance, still retained by his descendants, together with their ancestral title.

Under Sikh rule, the cis-Indus tract formed part of the Multán Province, administered by Sáwan Mall and his son Mulráj (*see* MULTAN DISTRICT). The upper Deraját, on the other hand, was farmed out to the Diwán Laki Mall, from whom it passed to his son, Daulat Rái. British influence first made itself felt in 1847, when Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, being despatched

to the frontier as Political Officer under the Council of Regency at Lahore, effected a summary assessment of the land-tax. In the succeeding year, levies from Dera Ismáil Khán followed Edwardes to Multán, and served loyally throughout the war that ended in the annexation of the Punjab. The District then passed quietly under British rule. On the first sub-division of the Province, Dera Ismáil Khán became the head-quarters of a District, which also originally included the trans-Indus portion of Bannu; Leiah was erected into the centre of a second District east of the river. The present arrangement took effect in 1861, Bannu being entrusted to a separate officer, and the southern half of Leiah District being incorporated with Dera Ismáil Khán. In 1857, some traces of a mutinous spirit appeared amongst the troops in garrison at the head-quarters station; but the promptitude and vigour of the Deputy Commissioner, Colonel Coxe, loyally aided by a hasty levy of local horse averted the danger without serious difficulty. In 1870, the District attracted for a time a melancholy attention through the death of Sir Henry Durand, Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, who struck against an arch and was precipitated from his elephant as he entered a gateway in the town of Tánk. His remains were interred at Dera Ismáil Khán.

Population.—The changes of territory in the cis-Indus portion of the District since the Census of 1855, render it impossible to institute a comparison between that enumeration and the returns of 1868 and 1881. In the trans-Indus Sub-division, however, which remains substantially unaltered in extent, a considerable increase took place between those dates. The Census of 1881 was taken over a total area of 9296 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 441,649 persons, distributed among 746 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 88,908 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 47; villages per square mile, 0·08; houses per square mile, 9·56; persons per village, 592; persons per house, 4·95. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 238,468; females, 203,181; proportion of males, 53·99 per cent. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Dera Ismáil Khán contains an essentially Muhammadan population, as might be expected from the late date and quarter of its colonization. The Census showed 385,244 Musalmáns, 54,446 Hindus, 1691 Sikhs, 2 Jains, 13 Pársís, and 253 Christians. Amongst the Hindus, the Aroras form by far the largest element, numbering as many as 44,146 persons; they comprise the principal trading classes of the District, a few wealthy families being found in the larger towns, while the majority carry on business as petty dealers in corn or money throughout the country villages. The mass of the agricultural population are Játs, the great majority of whom profess the Muhammadan religion, but are of Hindu or Scythian origin. Their

ancestors, according to tradition, accompanied the Baluchí chieftains on the first colonization of the District. The Patháns or Afgháns occupy a strip of country extending immediately below the Suláimán hills, throughout their whole length from north to south. Most of them belong to inconspicuous tribes, the highest in social position being connected with the Sadozái Nawábs of Dera Ismáil Khán. In 1881, Patháns numbered 73,022. Only three towns contained a population exceeding 5000 in 1881—namely, DERA ISMAIL KHAN, KULACHI, and LEIAH. The municipal towns in 1881 were as follows:—(1) DERA ISMAIL KHAN, 22,164; (2) KULACHI, 7834; (3) LEIAH, 5899; (4) BHAKKAR, 4402; (5) KAROR, 2723; (6) PAHARPUR, 2496. TANK (population, 2364) is the capital of an Afghán Principality till lately ruled by its semi-independent Nawáb, but now brought directly under British administration. The sanitarium of SHAIKH-BUDIN, at an elevation of 4516 feet above sea-level, occupies the highest point in the hills which separate this District from Bannu. The seven municipal towns contained in 1881 a total of 47,882 inhabitants, leaving 393,767, or 89·1 per cent., for the rural population. With regard to occupation, the Census Report returns the male population under the following seven main divisions:—Class (1) Professional, including civil and military officials and the learned professions, 6671; (2) domestic servants, lodging-house keepers, etc., 2631; (3) commercial class, including merchants, dealers, carriers, etc., 9960; (4) agricultural and pastoral, including gardeners, 68,931; (5) industrial and artisan and manufacturing class, 23,634; (6) labourers, and unspecified, 29,576; (7) male children below 15 years of age, 97,065.

Agriculture.—Throughout all portions of Dera Ismáil Khán District, tillage depends entirely upon artificial irrigation. The hill streams render but scanty service in this respect, their volume being speedily lost in the intricate ravines which they have cut for themselves through the hard clay of the submontane tract. Nevertheless they afford to the Afgháns of the border a chance of raising some few crops, sufficient for their own frugal subsistence. In the low-lying lands within the influence of the Indus, canals and wells offer an easy and abundant supply of water; but in the Thál or Sind Ságar uplands, wells can only be worked at an enormous depth. Even here, however, the indomitable energy of the Ját cultivators succeeds in producing harvests not inferior to those of the richest alluvial tracts. The State does not maintain any irrigation works in this District; but in 1880, a total of 370,579 acres were artificially watered by private enterprise. The area cultivated without irrigation amounted to 435,432 acres, giving a grand total of 806,011 acres under cultivation. The remainder of the District falls under the following heads:—Grazing lands, 806,791 acres; cultivable waste, 3,204,918 acres; uncultivable waste, 1,131,900 acres. Wheat

and barley form the staple products of the *rabi* or spring harvest, while the common millets, *joár* and *bájra*, constitute the principal *kharíf* or autumn crops. Sugar and tobacco are grown in the lowlands of the Indus, but not in sufficient quantities to meet the local demand. In 1880, the area in acres under the principal staples were returned as follows :—Wheat, 283,433 acres ; rice, 1673 ; *joár* (great millet), 18,360 ; *bájra* (spiked millet), 110,825 ; *makai* (Indian corn), 542 ; *jao* (barley), 28,358 ; *china* (Panicum miliaceum), 600 acres ; pulses, including gram (Cicer arietinum), *moth* (Phaseolus aconitium), *matar* or peas (Pisum sativum), *mash* (Phaseolus radiatus), *mung* (Phaseolus mungo), *masur* (Ervum lens), *arhar* (Cajanus indica), 39,270 acres ; oil-seeds, 33,723 acres ; cotton, 9939 acres. Of a total population of 441,649, 215,714 are returned as male agriculturists, of whom 60,925 were above fifteen years of age. Total area paying Government revenue or quit-rent, 7989 square miles, of which 1056 square miles are returned as cultivated, and 4329 as cultivable. Total Government revenue, including rates and cesses in 1881, £49,860 ; estimated value of rental, including cesses, actually paid by cultivators, £107,541.

Throughout the District, village communities of the ordinary types prevail, though many of them, especially among the Patháns of the frontier, appear to have adopted the communal system only as a consequence of British fiscal arrangements. Elsewhere, in the Ját villages, the existence of immemorial common lands attests the indigenous nature of the institution. Rents are universally paid in kind, at rates which range as high as one-half of the gross produce. The agricultural stock in the District is approximately estimated as follows :—Cows and bullocks, 182,257 ; horses, 3228 ; ponies, 496 ; donkeys, 11,146 ; sheep and goats, 485,308 ; camels, 10,738 ; ploughs, 58,940. Unskilled labourers in towns received from 4½d. to 6d. per diem in 1881 ; while skilled workmen obtained from 1s. to 1s. 3d. The prevailing prices per cwt. for the principal food-grains and agricultural staples in January 1881 is stated as under :—Wheat, 10s. 10d. ; flour, 12s. 5d. ; barley, 7s. 3d. ; gram, 8s. ; Indian corn, 6s. 11d. ; *joár*, 6s. ; *bájra*, 7s. 6d. ; rice (best), £1, 4s. 2d. ; cotton, £2, 16s. 0d. ; sugar (refined), £2, 11s. 2d.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—One of the main streams of caravan traffic between India and Khorásán traverses the District twice a year. The Povindah merchants cross the Gumál Pass between Tánk and Kuláchi from early in October till the middle of December, and, after passing on into India proper, return again in April or May. They seldom, however, unpack any portion of their wares in the local markets. The traffic of the District centres in the towns of Dera Ismáil Khán, Leiah, and Bhakkar. Wheat, millet, and wool are thence despatched down the Indus to Multán (Mooltan), Sukkur (Sakkar), or Karáchi (Kurrachee), while Indian and English piece-goods form the staples of

import trade. Hides from Sháhpur and Jhang, salt from Kohát and Pind Dádan Khán, and fancy ware of various kinds from Multán and Sukkur, also figure upon the list of entries. Dera Ismáil Khán town and many villages have considerable manufactures of coarse cloth for domestic use. The main channels of communication consist of—the Frontier military road, which skirts the base of the hills from north to south; the Multán and Ráwal Pindi road, which follows the high right bank of the Indus, *viâ* Kot Sultán, Leiah, Kharor, and Bhakkar; and the line from Dera Ismáil Khán to Jhang, and thence to Chíchawatni on the Lahore and Multán Railway. They are all practicable in ordinary seasons by wheeled conveyances or artillery. The Indus is bridged at Dera Ismáil Khán, opposite the cantonments, by a bridge of boats, from early in October till the end of April. This boat bridge is the longest of the kind in the Punjab, if not in India. The total length of roads within the District in 1880–81 amounted to 31 miles of metalled and 1538 miles of unmetalled roads. Water communication is afforded by 120 miles of navigable river (the Indus).

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with one Assistant and three extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. The total amount of revenue raised in the District during the year 1880–81 was returned at £59,286; of which sum, £17,542 was contributed by the land-tax. A local revenue of about £5000 provides for objects of public utility within the District itself. In 1880–81, Dera Ismáil Khán possessed 16 civil and revenue judges of all grades, 2 of whom were covenanted civilians; there were also 21 magistrates with criminal jurisdiction. The regular or Imperial police in 1881 consisted of a force of 505 men, of whom 387 were available for protective or defensive duties, the remainder being employed as guards over jails, treasuries, etc. There was also in the same year a municipal force of 68 men, and a ferry police of 9 men. As regards crime, out of 633 'cognisable' cases investigated by the police during the year, convictions were obtained in 393; the total number of persons arrested in connection with these cases was 954, of whom 703 were finally convicted. The District jail at Dera Ismáil Khán received a total number of 1470 inmates in 1880; while the daily average of prisoners for that and the two preceding years was 579. Education still remains at a low standard. The District contained 30 schools supported or aided by the Government in 1880–81, with an aggregate roll of 1996 scholars. The Church Missionary Society has an educational station at Dera Ismáil Khán, in receipt of a grant-in-aid from Government. The troops quartered in the District, for the defence of the Frontier, comprise 2 regiments of infantry, 1 regiment of cavalry, and a battery of field artillery, amounting in all to 2200 rank and file of all arms,

with 4 guns. The head-quarters are at Dera Ismáil Khán. A small force of local militia supplements the regular troops in the outpost stations upon the Frontier. The 6 municipal towns had an aggregate revenue in 1880-81 of £5635; expenditure, £5765; average incidence, 2s. 4¼d. per head of municipal population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District is dry and hot, the average monthly mean for a period of twelve years ending 1880 being 73·9° F., ranging from 92·7° in June to 51·5° in January. In 1880, the thermometer registered a maximum temperature of 114·5° in May, and a minimum of 56·2° in December. Up to the middle of May, the climate is tolerable for Europeans; but after that date, the season of fierce summer-heat sets in. The average annual rainfall for a period of eighteen years ending 1880 amounted to only 8·89 inches. In the latter year the rainfall was only 4 inches. The rainy season, or rather the period of occasional showers, occurs during the months of June, July, August, and September. Malarious fever, dysentery, and small-pox form the prevalent diseases of the District. The head-quarters station, however, bears a good reputation from a sanitary point of view. Six charitable dispensaries afforded relief in 1881 to 45,872 persons, of whom 1164 were in-patients. [For further information regarding Dera Ismáil Khán District, see the forthcoming *Punjab Gazetteer*; also the *Settlement Operations* from 1872 to 1879, quoted in Mr. Stack's *Settlement Memorandum*, p. 313; *Mauzáwár or Village Survey*, by No. 1 Party (Revenue Branch), under Lieut. Col. D. Macdonald, quoted p. 26 of the *Administration Report of the Survey Department* for 1881-82. Also the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881, and the *Punjab Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Dera Ismáil Khán.—*Tahsíl* of Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, consisting of a narrow strip of land between the Suláimán mountains and the Indus. Lat. 31° 20′ to 32° 33′ N., and long. 70° 33′ 30″ to 71° 25′ E. Area, 1673 square miles. Population (1881) 120,142, namely, males 64,626, and females 55,516; average density of population, 72 persons per square mile. Hindus number 15,674; Sikhs, 721; Muhammadans, 103,501; 'others,' 246. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £9997. The administrative staff, which includes the Divisional head-quarters, consists of the Commissioner of the Division, with a Deputy Commissioner, Judicial Assistant, 2 Assistant Commissioners, a *tahsíldár*, a *munsif*, 2 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 8 civil and 8 criminal courts; number of police stations, 3; strength of regular police, 102 men; number of village watch (*chaukídárs*), 135.

Dera Ismáil Khán.—Town, cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Dera Ismáil Khán District and the Dera Ját Division, Punjab.

Lat. 31° 50′ N., long. 70° 59′ E. Population (1881) 22,164, namely, 8862 Hindus, 12,440 Muhammadans, 680 Sikhs, 2 Jains, and 180 'others.' Distant from the right bank of the Indus 4½ miles west, from Lahore 200 miles west, and from Multán (Mooltan) 120 miles north-west. Founded in the end of the 15th century by Ismáil Khán, one of the sons of the Baluch adventurer Málik Sohráb, who called the town after his own name.

The original city was swept away by a flood in 1823, and all the existing buildings are of quite modern construction. The town stands on a level plain, with a slight fall to the river, but so badly drained that pools of water collect for weeks after heavy rain, and many of the streets become impassable. Surrounded by a thin mud wall, with five gates, enclosing an area of about 500 acres. Tortuous and ill-ventilated alleys, especially in the Hindu quarter. The cantonments, which lie to the south-east of the town, contain a total area of 4⅝ square miles. Lines exist for a regiment of Native cavalry, two regiments of Native infantry, and a battery of artillery. The cantonments also contain a church, staging bungalow, and swimming-bath. European detachments garrison the small fort of Akalgarh, half a mile from the north-west angle of the town. The ordinary garrison of the station consists of a mountain battery of artillery, a regiment of Native cavalry, and two of infantry, belonging to the Punjab Frontier Force, and commanded by the general officer commanding the force at Abbottábád. Detachments from these regiments garrison the outposts of Tánk, Girni, Jatta, Manjhi, and Drábad. Ten militia posts are also maintained, exclusive of border police posts.

The civil station, which lies to the south of the native town, contains the offices of the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner, the court-house, treasury, jail, police lines, post-office, and dispensary. The Church Missionary Society has an important station, and supports a considerable school. In time of flood, the whole strip of land between the town and the river is covered by the inundations. The town is traversed by two main *bázárs* running at right angles to each other, and intersected at the centre, which is the most crowded part, and is thronged with Povindah traders in the cold weather. Both the main *bázárs* are paved, and have been recently widened and provided with saucer-shaped drains along the main streets. The town itself is very well planned, though somewhat straggling. One specially good feature is the arrangement by which the Muhammadans and Hindus have each separate quarters; and hence quarrels between the rival religions are of rare occurrence. The native town is of quite modern construction, and contains but few buildings of interest. It is, however, one of the most aristocratic towns in the Punjab, with a large number of resident native noblemen, Patháns, or Mul-

tinís, including 4 Nawábs. The old town was situated some four miles to the east of the present site, on the bank of the Indus. It stood in a large wood of date trees, and probably resembled the present town of Dera Ghází Khán.

The trade of Dera Ismáil Khán ranks as of second-rate importance only, but some foreign traffic with Khorásán passes through in the course of transit. Povindah caravans of Afghán merchants traverse the town twice a year, on their road to and from India. Chief imports—English and native piece-goods, hides, salt, and fancy wares; principal exports—grain, wool, and *ghí*. Manufacture of scarves and inlaid wood-work. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £3511; municipal expenditure, £3501; average incidence of taxation, 3s. 2d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Deraját.—Division or Commissionership in the Punjab, situated between 28° 27′ and 33° 15′ N. lat., and between 69° 35′ and 72° 2′ E., occupying the valley of the Indus; comprising the three Districts of DERA ISMAIL KHAN, DERA GHAZI KHAN, and BANNU, each of which see separately. Area, 17,681 square miles, with 1809 villages and 17 towns; number of houses, 204,557. Population, 1,137,572, namely, Muhammadans, 1,001,486; Hindus, 131,786; Sikhs, 3807; Jains, 62; Pársís, 13; Christians, 417; unspecified, 1. The Játs, who comprise the most important section of the population, number 419,665, and are almost exclusively Muhammadans in religion. Páthans, all Muhammadans, come next, with 223,915; Rájputs, nearly all Muhammadans, number 7726; Bráhmans, 7740; Khattris, or Hindu landholders and traders, 7686; Shaikhs, 21,784; Mughals, 1930. The total area of the Division paying Government assessment amounts to 15,609 square miles, of which 3334 square miles were returned as cultivated in 1881, and 68,909 square miles as cultivable.

Dera Nának.—Town in Batála *tahsíl*, Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Population (1881) 5956, namely, 1521 Hindus, 2409 Muhammadans, and 2026 Sikhs; number of houses, 1057. Lies in lat. 32° 2′ 15″ N., long. 75° 4′ E., on the banks of the river Rávi, 13 miles north-west of Batála. Bába Nának, the first Sikh Guru, settled and died at the village of Pakhoki, opposite the modern town; and his descendants, the Bedis, continued to reside upon the same spot until the encroaching river swept away their village. They then crossed the stream, and built a new town, which they called after the name of their holy ancestor. The majority of the inhabitants still consist of Bedis. Handsome Sikh temple, dedicated to Bába Nának. A second temple, known as the Táli Sáhib, from a large *táli* or *shisham* tree which stood near it, was carried away by an inundation in 1870, but has since been rebuilt. The Rávi has encroached considerably towards the town; and

although an embankment (*bandh*) has been constructed to check further encroachments, there is great danger of the temple and town itself being carried away. The introduction of railway communication has led to the decline of the commercial importance of the town; but it is still the centre of a considerable shawl-weaving industry. Considerable export of cotton and sugar. Police station, Anglo-vernacular school, post-office, and dispensary. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £531; expenditure, £425; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 9½d. per head.

Derapur.—South-western *tahsíl* of Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces; stretching inland from the banks of the Jumna, and traversed by the Bhognipur and Etáwah branches of the Ganges Canal. Area, 321 square miles, of which 189 are cultivated; population (1881) 124,746; land revenue, £27,798; total Government revenue, £31,195; rental paid by cultivators, £42,102; incidence of Government revenue, 3s. 3d. per acre. The river Sengur, flowing from west to east, divides the *tahsíl* into two portions, the northern being a fertile loamy plain, watered by the canal and numerous wells. Towards the Sengur, however, this tract deteriorates, losing its fertility in rugged ravines. The southern portion has a soil much resembling that of the north, but with an almost complete lack of irrigation. The land between this depression and the Jumna is said to be the highest in the District.

Derapur.—Town in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Derapur *tahsíl*, situated on the right bank of the Sengur river, 35 miles west of Cawnpur town, and 8 miles south of Rura railway station, communication with which is maintained by means of a good metalled road. Population (1881) 2117; area of town site, 32 acres. The town possesses a *tahsíli*, first-class police station, school, dispensary, post-office. It also contains the remains of several old mosques, and a fine masonry tank. In the time of Maráthá rule (1756–1762), a fort was built here by Govind Rai Pandit, the Governor of the Province.

Derband.—Village in Hazára District, Punjab; situated in lat. 34° 18′ N., long. 72° 55′ E., on the left bank of the Indus, at the point where its stream expands on entering the plains. It is the principal village in the cis-Sutlej possessions of the Nawáb of Amb, which he holds under the British as landlord. Population (1881) 785. Near this point, in 1827, Sher Singh, the Sikh commander, defeated Sayyid Ahmad, an Afghán fanatic who had excited a religious war against the Sikhs.

Derdi Jánbái.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village with 2 tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £250.

Deri Kot.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* GHAIBI DERO.

Deri Sháhan.—Village in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* DHERI SHAHAN.

Dero Mohbat.—*Táluk* of the Tando Sub-Division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 24° 58′ 15″ to 25° 19′ N., and longitude 68° 32′ 30″ to 69° 20′ 45″ E. Area, 670 square miles. Population (1881) 37,260, namely, 3535 Hindus, 30,528 Muhammadans, 740 Sikhs, and 2457 aborigines; dwelling in 65 villages, and occupying 6741 houses. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 25 men; land revenue, £5557.

Detanaw.—A small but once flourishing village in Twan-te township, Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, British Burma. At the close of the first Anglo-Burmese war, many of the inhabitants who had sided with the British escaped to Tenasserim, but the rest were massacred by the Burmese for their adherence to our cause. In the neighbourhood, there are the ruins of a large and very ancient pagoda.

Deulgáon Rájá (*Dewalgáon*).—Town in Buldáná District, Berár. Latitude 20° N., longitude 76° E. Population (1881) 7025, namely, 3467 males and 3558 females. Of the total population, 5740 were returned as Hindus, 825 as Muhammadans, and 429 as Jains. The original name was Dewalwári, from a *wári* or hamlet close by, founded by a descendant of the Jádon family. On the north is a small range of hills, and on the south the small river of Amni. The town is 60 miles east of Buldáná. It was once fortified by a wall, now in ruins. The principal articles of trade are cotton and silk. There are about 240 Koshtís or weavers, of both sexes; and of Sálís or workers in silk and cotton, about 1338. The Sráwaks or Jain traders, who deal in cloth, are said to have come from the north about 300 years ago. The origin of the great Jádon family, a member of which founded Deulgáon, is uncertain. Lakhji Jádon Ráo, who came from Northern India, gave his daughter Jijia to Sháhji the son of Málojí; and in 1627 she became the mother of Sivají, the founder of the Maráthá power. Rásojí, a natural son of one of the Jádon family, gained for himself the title of founder of Deulgáon, by enlarging the town. The hereditary dues enjoyed by the family were confiscated in 1851, when a body of Arabs under the command of Bájí Ráo, then head of the family, engaged in a severe fight against the Haidarábád contingent. Bájí Ráo died a State prisoner in 1856. Of all the *dewasthåns* in Berár, that of Bálájí at Deulgáon, founded by the Jádon Rájás, is the most celebrated. At the annual fair held generally in October in honour of this deity, the offerings exceed half a *lákh* of rupees, or £5000 in value.

At this time, food is supplied gratuitously to pilgrims and religious mendicants attending the festival.

Deulghát.—Town in Buldáná District, Berár; situated in latitude 20° 31″ N., and longitude 76° 10′ 30″ E., on the Penganga river. Population (1881) 3867. An ancient town, formerly known as Deoli, and perhaps built as a refuge in the troubled time of the Muhammadan invasions; now of little importance. The Hindu temples formerly existing were overthrown by the Násir-ud-dín, who was despatched by Aurangzeb to organize his conquests in the Deccan.

Deválá (or *Nambalakod*).—Chief town of the Nambalakod *amshom* (Division), South-east Wainád (Wynád), Nílgiri District, Madras Presidency; situated 4 miles from the head of the Karkúr *ghát*, on the high road traversing Wainád to Vytheri, in latitude 11° 28′ N., longitude 76° 26′ E. The village has long been known as a coffee centre, but has increased of late greatly in importance, owing to its being the centre of the gold-fields of South-east Wainád. It has a hotel, telegraph and police stations: the hills around are studded with bungalows inhabited by the European employés of the gold companies. Recently made the residence of the Head Assistant-Collector and Magistrate of Nílgiri District.

Devalgáon.—Town in Buldáná District, Berár.—*See* DEULGAON RAJA.

Devália. — State in Rewa Kántha, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency.—*See* DEWALIA.

Devanhalli.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore State, Southern India. Area, 238 square miles. Population (1881) 52,995, namely, 51,576 Hindus, 696 Muhammadans, and 723 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water-rates, £9748, or 3s. 3d. per cultivated acre. The *táluk* is composed of the old Devanhalli and Jangamkoté *táluks*. The surface, watered by the Pinákini, is undulating, with many fertile and well-cultivated valleys. There is some cultivation of the poppy for opium. Potatoes and nummelos of excellent quality are raised. Sugar of a superior kind was formerly manufactured under the supervision of some Chinese introduced by Tipú Sultán. Vadigenthalli in the *táluk* is a considerable mart. The region is crossed from north to south by the old Bangalore-Bellary high-road, and from east to west by the Kolar Dod-Ballapur road.

Devanhalli.—Town in Bangalore District, Mysore State, Southern India; 23 miles north of Bangalore. Latitude 13° 15′ N., longitude 77° 45′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5776, namely, 5464 Hindus, 296 Muhammadans, and 16 Christians. The former seat of a family of *pálegárs*, who traced their descent from one of the refugees of the Morasu Wokkal tribe, who founded petty dynasties throughout Mysore in the 14th century. The last of the Gaudas, as the chiefs were called,

was overthrown in 1748 by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. It was in the siege of Devanhalli, on this occasion, that Haidar Alí first gained distinction as a volunteer horseman, and it was at Devanhalli that his son Tipú was born. Haidar erected a fort of stone, which was captured by Lord Cornwallis in 1791. A weekly fair held on Wednesdays is attended by 500 persons. Head-quarters of the Devanhalli *táluk*.

Devarayapalle.—Village in the Atmakúr *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 2466; number of houses, 466.

Devaraydurga ('*Hill of Deva Rájá*').—Fortified hill in Tumkúr District, Mysore State, Southern India. Latitude 13° 22′ 30″ N., longitude 77° 14′ 50″ E.; 9 miles east of Tumkúr; 3940 feet above sea-level. It consists of three terraces, well supplied with water, and is now used as a summer retreat for the European officials of the District. It was captured from a local chieftain in 1608 by Deva Rájá, who built the present fortification. A small temple on the summit, dedicated to Durgá Narasinha, was erected by a subsequent Rájá of Mysore. It contains jewellery, etc., worth about £1000, and is endowed with £85 a year. An annual festival is attended by about 3000 persons.

Devgadh (*Deogarh*).—Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by Rájápur; on the east by the Kolhápur State; on the south by the Málvan Sub-division and the Sávantwádi State; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. Area, 543 square miles. Population (1881) 112,993, dwelling in 121 villages; density of population, 217 persons to the square mile. Males number 56,268; females, 61,631, or more than 50 per cent. Since 1872, the population has fallen off by 65,016. Distributed according to religion, Hindus number 112,993, or 95·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 3639; 'others,' not specified, 1267. The Devgadh Sub-division, about 26 miles long, and on an average 32 broad, stretches from the sea-coast to the watershed of the Sahyádris. At the north-west corner the rocky headland of Vijayadurg juts out into the sea. The coast-line from Vijayadurg, the northern, to the mouth of the Achra river, the southern point, is fairly regular, although intersected by creeks and small river estuaries. In the sandy coves along the coast lie fishing villages picturesquely secluded in groves of palm. The only pass into the Deccan of any importance is the Phonda route; the water-supply is fair for 20 miles inland. The soil is poor, and there are no irrigation works. The river Vijayadurg is navigable for vessels drawing seven feet of water as far as Vaghotan. Canoes can paddle up to Khárepátan, 20 miles from the sea. The area of the Sub-division has not been fully surveyed. Agricultural stock in 1878–79:—Horned cattle, 69,478; sheep and goats, 7964; horses, 56; ploughs, 14,840. In 1878, 30,325 acres were cultivated, 80 per cent. of which was under rice, while 325

acres were under sugar-cane. The Sub-division contains 7 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*tháńás*), 7; regular police, 62 men.

Devgadh (*Deogarh*). — Seaport in the Deogarh (Devgadh) Sub-division, Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency, 180 miles from Bombay. Has a safe and beautiful land-locked harbour, at all times perfectly smooth. Average depth of harbour, 18 feet. The entrance, only three cables in width, lies close to the fort point. The fort has an area of 120 acres; the walls are in a ruined state, and there is no garrison. The position, said to have been fortified by the Angriás, a Maráthá pirate race, 175 years ago, was in 1818 captured by Colonel Imlak. In 1875, the head-quarters of the Sub-division were moved here from Khárepátan, and there are now the usual subordinate offices, a sea-customs office, a post-office, and a vernacular school. Lat. 16° 22′ N., long. 73° 24′ E.; average annual value of trade for five years ending 1881–82—exports, £10,945; imports, £10,364.

Deví (literally '*The Goddess*,' a title specially applied to the wife of Siva, the All-Destroyer). River in Orissa, Bengal; formed by the junction in Cuttack District of the Great and Little Deví, two distributaries thrown off from the right bank of the Kátjurí, an important offshoot of the Mahánadi. The united stream passes into Purí District, and falls into the Bay of Bengal a few miles below the southern boundary of Cuttack. The Deví forms the last part of the great net-work of channels into which the Kátjurí branch of the Mahánadi bifurcates; most of these streams reunite as they approach the sea, forming a broad and noble estuary, which, under the name of the Deví, enters the ocean in lat. 19° 58′ N., and long. 86° 25′ E. Some years ago, a permanent beacon was erected at the mouth; an excellent channel of from 16 to 24 feet is obtained for 7 miles inland from the entrance to the Deví. Above this distance the river shoals rapidly, and is only navigable by country craft. This harbour is unfortunately rendered almost useless by bars of sand across its mouth, which vary in depth from year to year. As soon as the south-west monsoon sets in, the surf rages outside in such a way as to render the approach of vessels perilous in the extreme. The ordinary tidal rise is from 4 to 6 feet, and runs for 28 miles up the river, the limit of navigation in the dry season. After the rains, a much greater depth of water is obtained, and an extensive rice trade has developed itself at Máchhgáon, 9 miles up the Deví. The mouth of the river is surrounded by dense jungle, destitute of inhabitants.

Devikota.—Town in Tiruvadanai *táluk* or Sub-division, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 8451, namely, 7987 Hindus, 405 Muhammadans, and 59 Christians. Number of houses, 1255.

Devikota (*Dívikkottei*). — Small ruined fort in Tanjore District,

Madras Presidency; situated 24 miles north of Tranquebar, in latitude 11° 22′ 28″ N., and longitude 79° 52′ E., on the Coromandel coast, at the mouth of the Coleroon (Kolladam) river. Devikota was one of the earliest settlements of the Company, the fort with a small tract of adjoining country having been wrested in 1749 from the Rájá of Tanjore, after two hazardous expeditions from Fort St. David. The first of these was undertaken at the instance of Saiyáji, the deposed Rájá of Devikota; it consisted of 430 Europeans and 1000 Sepoys under Captain Cope; but owing to various mischances, the force had to return. The second expedition of a larger body under Major S. Lawrence was successful. In the course of the siege, Clive, who was then a lieutenant, had a narrow escape. The fort was found to be a mile in circumference, with walls 18 feet high. No factory was established, and the fort was abandoned on the approach of the French in June 1758. The French in turn evacuated it after Sir Eyre Coote's victory at Wandewash, and in 1760 it was re-garrisoned by our troops.

Devjagáon (*Devjágan*).—Place of Hindu pilgrimage in the Jámbúsar Sub-division, Broach District, Bombay Presidency; situated about three-quarters of a mile from the village of Nárá, at the mouth of the Dhádhar river; contains about 300 houses. A fair attended by 2000 people is held here twice a year. The temple at Devjagáon is enclosed by a wall 80 feet from north to south, and 100 feet from east to west. The interior forms one room 25 feet by 18 feet. A grant of 1562 acres of land is attached to the temple. A lighthouse has been built on the mainland at the mouth of the Dhádhar river; the height of the lantern above high water is 49 feet.

Dewa.—*Parganá* in Nawábganj *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh. At the time of the first Muhammadan invasion of Oudh, under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, in 1030 A.D., this *parganá* appears to have been held by the Janwár Rájputs; and the present Shaikh residents of Dewa assert that they are descended from Sháh Wesh, the first Musalmán conqueror of the village, and lieutenant of Sayyid Sálár. But for a long time it formed only their entrenched camp; they did not acquire any proprietary rights in the *parganá* till about the commencement of the 16th century, when *aimá* grants were made to several Shaikh families. Another Musalmán settlement is that of the Sayyids of Kheoli, who colonized a tract of 32 villages west of Dewa about the commencement of the 13th century. A third colony to the south is that of the Shaikhs of Kidwára, who probably came about the same time. Other smaller Musalmán communities have also spread over the *parganá*. The Bais Kshatriyás also obtained a footing in the *parganá;* and during the latter years of the native Government, they seized almost the whole of the north of the *parganá*, by annexing the

villages of their weaker neighbours. They became the terror of the whole neighbourhood, and for a long time they set the King's Government at open defiance. Ultimately a strong force captured the fort of one of the chiefs, who was taken prisoner with his son, and beheaded at Lucknow. The other Janwár chief was afterwards killed in battle. Both estates were confiscated and partitioned out, principally among Muhammadan Shaikhs. The percentage of cultivated land is higher than in any other *parganá* of the District, and south of Dewa the soil is very fertile and highly cultivated. Many of the husbandmen belong to the industrious class of Ahírs, who pay high rents to the Musalmán proprietors. Area, 141 square miles, of which 82 are cultivated; Government land revenue, £14,506, the average incidence being 5s. 6¼d. per acre of cultivated area, 3s. 9d. per acre of assessed area, and 3s. 2¾d. per acre of total area. Of the 163 villages which comprise the *parganá*, only 57 are held by Hindus, the rest belong to Musalmáns. Half the villages are held under *tálukdári*, and half under *zamíndári* tenure. Population in 1881, 64,846, namely, 33,787 males and 31,059 females; average density of population, 460 persons per square mile. Five towns only contain a population exceeding 1000; 4 unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*.

Dewa.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; 8 miles from the town of Bara Banki. A Muhammadan colony of old standing, and the residence of two well-known families of Shaikhs. Population (1881) 2930. Noted for its manufactures of glassware and delf. Government school.

Dewála.—Small village in Chándá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 6′ N., and long. 79° 6′ 30″ E.; 6 miles west of Bhandak. Population (1881) 595. Interesting on account of its architectural remains, for which see BHANDAK.

Dewálgáon.—Small village in Chándá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 23′ N., and long. 80° 2′ E.; 10 miles south-west of Wairágarh. Near it stands a remarkably-shaped hill, from which excellent iron-ore is quarried. Population (1881) 427.

Dewalghát.—Town in Buldáná District, Berár.—*See* DEULGHAT.

Dewália.—Petty State in Jháláwár *pránth* or division, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 2 villages, with 2 tribute-payers. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £523, of which £46, 14s. is payable as British tribute and £5, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Dewálwára.—Small village in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; on the river Wardhá, 6 miles west of Arvi. Noted for the large fair held every November for over a century past, in the bed of the river close by. The fair lasts from 20 to 25 days, during which time pilgrims and merchants from Nágpur, Poona, Násik, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), etc. flock to the fine temple of the goddess Rukmí, besides transacting

business to the value of £10,000 or £12,500. Immediately opposite Dewálwára stood Kundinapur, described in the 10th chapter of the sacred book *Bhágvat* as extending from the river Vidarbha (Wardha) to Amráoti, where King Bhimák reigned over the Vidarbha country, and gave his daughter in marriage to the god Krishna.

Dewalwárá.—Village in Ellichpur District, Berár, Deccan; situated in lat. 21° 18′ N., and long. 77° 45′ E., on the Púrna river, about 14 miles from Ellichpur. Formerly a town of some importance, containing 5000 houses, but now only noteworthy for its ancient buildings, the chief of which are a mosque, built about 300 years ago, and 2 Hindu temples. One of these is dedicated to the Nar Singh of Hindu mythology, who, having killed Hírania Kásipú, was able, after failing everywhere else, to wash away the blood-stains at Dewalwárá. Near the temple is a place now called 'Kar Shudhí Tirth,' or 'holy place of cleaning hands.'

Dewás.—Native State under the Manpur Agency of Central India. Lat. 22° 42′ to 23° 5′ N., long. 75° 57′ to 76° 21′ E. Contains 2 towns and 455 villages. The chief products are grain, opium, sugar-cane, and cotton. The State has two chiefs, and the rule of each chief is distinct within his own limits. The elder chief, Kishnají Ráo Puár, is commonly known as the Bábá Sáhib; the younger chief, Náráyan Ráo Puár, is styled Dádá Sáhib. They are of the Puár Rájput race, and of the same stock as the Rájá of Dhár. Originally true Rájputs, they intermarried with Maráthás, and thus impaired the purity of their descent. The senior Branch keeps up a force of 87 horse and about 500 foot, including police, with 10 guns for saluting purposes. The junior Branch maintains a force of 123 horse and about 500 foot, including police. The Census return of 1881 gives a total population for the combined States of 142,162, and an area of 289 square miles. Of the total population, 75,647 are males, and 66,515 females. A total of 73,940 represents the portion subject to the senior Branch. In Dewas senior, Hindus number 64,496; Muhammadans, 7469; Jains, 118; and Pársís, 4. Aborigines are returned at 1853. Of the Hindus, Bráhmans number 1742, and Rájputs 3797. In Dewas junior, Hindus number 58,891; Muhammadans, 6435; Jains, 40; and aborigines, 2856. Among the Hindus, Bráhmans number 3753, and Rájputs 9703. In the whole territory, 448 out of the 455 towns and villages have less than 1000 inhabitants. The territories of Dewás, Sárangpur, and several other tracts were allotted by Bájí Ráo Peshwá to the common ancestor Kalují. His two sons, Tukají and Jiwají, quarrelled, and the State was divided between them. By a treaty in 1818, with the two chiefs conjointly, the State was taken under British protection; the chiefs undertook to forego communication with other States, and to supply a body of contingent

troops, which was ultimately commuted for an annual cash payment of about £3560. In 1828, the chiefs of Dewás made over to the administrative charge of the British Government the *parganá* of Bagand, an outlying district in Nimár. The annual surplus revenue of this *parganá*, which in 1881-82 amounted to £662, after payment of all administrative charges, is paid to the chiefs of Dewás. Both the chiefs, who hold the title of Rájás, did good service during the Mutiny of 1857-58. Both have received *sanads* guaranteeing the right of adoption, and both are entitled to a salute of 15 guns.

Dewás.—Chief town of the State of Dewás, under the Mánpur Agency of Central India, situated about 20 miles to the north-east of Indore. Lat. 22° 58′ N., and long. 76° 6′ E. The two chiefs of the State reside in different palaces within the town, which is of comparatively recent origin, and irregularly built; population (1881) 11,921 souls. The town contains a post-office, staging bungalow, and dispensary, all under British supervision. To the north-west of the town is a small conical hill, about 300 feet high, on which stands the temple of Chámunda Deví, which is reached by a half-finished flight of masonry steps. The temple near the crest consists of a demi-spherical vault or cave cut in the side of a cliff, having a huge figure of the goddess brought out in relief. In front of the cavity is a small masonry room with steps descending to the level of an open space cleared out on the crest of the hill, on one side of which is a rectangular tank, with a small temple dedicated to Mahádeo, built on its edge; the hill is visited by numerous devotees from the town and surrounding country.

Dhabien.—Tidal creek in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* DABIEN.

Dhabla Dhír.—Guaranteed *girasiá*, or petty chiefship, under the Bhopál Agency of Central India. Area, 10 square miles; estimated population, 1000 souls. The Thákur, or chief, receives a *tankha*, or pecuniary allowance in lieu of rights over land, from Holkár, Sindhia, Dewás, and Bhopál to the total amount of £425. In addition, he holds a grant of 3 villages in Shujáwalpur, under the guarantee of the British Government, for which he pays a quit-rent of £140 annually. He is also Thákur of Kankerkhera, in which right he holds another village in Shujáwalpur, receiving a *tankha* of £80, and paying an additional quit-rent of £17, subject to a deduction of 2 per cent. on the transfer of the *parganá* to Sindhia.

Dhabla Ghosi.—Guaranteed *girasiá*, or petty chiefship, under the Bhopál Agency of Central India. The Thákur, or chief, receives a *tankha*—pecuniary allowance in lieu of rights over land—from Sindhia, Dewás, and Bhopál to the total amount of £500. He also holds a village in Shujáwalpur, for which he pays a quit-rent of £105.

Dhádhar.—River in Western India: rises in the western spurs

of the Vindhya range, about 35 miles north-east of the village of Bhilápur, where it is crossed by a stone bridge, and in lat. 22° 20′ N., and long. 73° 40′ E., and after receiving on the right the Vishwamitri river, on the banks of which stands the city of Baroda, ultimately falls into the Gulf of Cambay, in lat. 21° 54′ N., and long. 72° 38′ E. Total length, 70 miles; drainage area estimated at 1850 square miles.

Dháká.—Division, District, and city of Eastern Bengal.—*See* DACCA.

Dhalandhar.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Contains a native asylum for lunatics. The daily average number of inmates in 1881 was 207, 27·57 per cent. of whom were discharged as cured, and 7·73 per cent. as improved. The deaths amounted to 15·96 per cent.

Dhaldighi.—Village and large tank in Dinájpur District, Bengal. Fair held annually on the bank of the tank, which lasts for eight days, commencing on the first day of Phálgun (latter half of February); attendance, about 25,000. Considerable trade carried on at this time.

Dhaleswari.—The name of several rivers in Eastern Bengal and Assam: (1) an offshoot of the Jamuná, or main stream of the Brahmaputra, which runs across Dacca District and forms a valuable communication with the Meghná, although the quantity of water now (1882) coming into it from the Jamuná is decreasing rapidly, and steamers only run during the rainy season; (2) the stream formed by the junction of the Surmá and Kusiára rivers before its confluence with the Meghná, forming the boundary between the Districts of Maimansinh and Sylhet; (3) a river in Cachar District, rising in the Lushái country, and flowing northwards into the Barák through the fertile valley of Hailákándi. At the point where it crosses the frontier, a permanent *bázár* has been established for trade with the Lusháis. In the lower part of its course, the stream has been diverted by an embankment, said to have been constructed by a Rájá of Cachar. The old channel reaches the Barák at Siáltekh Bázár; the new channel, called the Kátákhál, is navigable by large boats. This river has given its name to a forest reserve covering an area of 33 square miles.

Dhalet.—River in Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Rises in the main range and falls into Combermere Bay; it is navigable as far as Dhalet (sometimes called Talak), a village 25 miles from its mouth. In its upper reaches the stream is a mountain torrent, only passable by small canoes.

Dhalkisor (or *Dwarkeswar*).—River of Western Bengal. It rises in the Tilábani Hill in Mánbhúm District, whence it flows through Bánkurá District, following a tortuous south-easterly course, with several bifurcations through *thánás* Bánkurá, Onda, Bishenpur, Kotalpur, and Indás. It enters Bardwán District 4 miles east of Katalpur; flows

south-east and south past the town of Jahánábád, and leaves the District at Berárí village, after which it is known as the RUPNARAYAN, eventually joining the Húglí opposite Húglí Point. It is subject to sudden floods, but portions of the bordering country are now protected from inundation by embankments. In its upper reaches, within Bánkurá District, it is only navigable in the rainy months by craft of 2 tons burthen.

Dhamda.—Town in Raípur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 27′ N., long. 81° 23′ E.; about 24 miles north-west of Raípur. Population (1881) 2850, namely, Hindus, 2593; Kabírpanthís, 24; Satnámí, 1; Muhammadans, 172; and persons professing aboriginal religions, 60. The inhabitants include a colony of brass-workers, who manufacture the heavy brass anklets worn by the women of the country. Near the town are fine groves, and the remains of some large tanks, and of an old fort, with two handsome gateways in good preservation. Dhamdá was formerly the head-quarters of a Gond chief, subordinate to the kings of Ratanpur. On the conquest of Chhatísgarh by the Maráthás, their officers arrested the chief of Dhamdá on a charge of treachery, and blew him from a gun. Dhamdá has a school, a post-office, and police station-house.

Dhámi.—One of the Punjab Hill States under the Government of the Punjab, about 10 or 12 miles to the west of Simla. When Shahab-ud-dín Ghori (Muhammad of Ghor) invaded India in the 14th century, the founder of this family fled from Ráipur, in Ambála (Umballa) District, and conquered the territory which now forms the State of Dhámi. It was at one time a feudatory of Biláspur, but was made independent of that State by the British Government when the Gúrkhas, having overrun the country from 1803 to 1815, were finally expelled in the latter year. Fateh Singh, the Ráná of Dhámi, is a Rájput by caste. The area of the State (1881) is 26 square miles; with 214 hamlets and 688 houses. Population (1881) 3322, namely, 3294 Hindus, 3 Sikhs, and 25 Muhammadans. Estimated revenue, £800. The State pays an annual tribute of £72. The father of the present chief paid only £36, one-half of the tribute having been remitted for his life on account of good services rendered during the Mutiny. The principal articles of production are grains and a little opium.

Dham-ma-tha.—Town in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma.—*See* DAM-MA-THA.

Dhámoní.—Village in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 24° 12′ N., long. 78° 49′ E.; 28 miles north of Ságar town. Súrat Sáh, a scion of the great Gond dynasty of Mandlá, the original founder of Dhámoní, was defeated about 1600 by Rájá Barsingh Deva, the Bundelá chief of the neighbouring State of Orchhá, who took possession of

the country, and rebuilt the fort and town on so grand a scale that it became the capital of a large tract with 2558 villages, including the greater part of the present Districts of Ságar and Damoh. His son and successor, Pahár Singh, continued to reign till 1619, when the country became an integral portion of the Delhi Empire. During the next eighty years it was ruled by five successive governors from Delhi, the last of whom was, about 1700, defeated by Rájá Chhatar Sál of Panná. His descendants retained Dhámoní till 1802, when Umráo Singh, Rájá of Patan, a small neighbouring place, seized the fort and country by treachery, but was himself in a few months compelled to yield to the army of the Rájá of Nágpur. In 1818, soon after the flight of Apá Sáhib, the fort was invested by a British force under General Marshall; who, having ineffectually offered the garrison £1000 'in discharge of arrears of pay, on condition of immediate evacuation,' opened batteries against the place, with such effect that in six hours it was surrendered unconditionally. Dhámoní thus came under British rule, but by that time the tract had been reduced to only 33 villages. Its present condition is desolate in the extreme, the population scarcely exceeding 100; but the ruins of mosques, tombs, and buildings for nearly a mile round the fort and lake attest the importance of the place under Muhammadan rule. The fort, which covers an area of 52 acres, stands on an eminence near the summit of the *gháts* leading to Bundelkhand, commanding the valley of the river Dhásán. The ramparts are in most parts 50 feet high and 15 feet thick, with enormous round towers. Interior works further strengthen the defences of the eastern quarter, where the magazine was probably situated. Inside and around it are large groves of custard-apple trees. The town lies to the west of the fort, and the lake, which is of considerable size, to the south-west of the town. The supply of water is excellent, and the soil near the village remarkably fertile, as the luxuriant and varied vegetation shows. Police outpost station.

Dhámpur.—*Tahsíl* of Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 323 square miles, of which 223 are cultivated. Population (1881) 170,039; land revenue, £26,630; total Government revenue, £29,905; rental paid by cultivators, £58,100; incidence of Government revenue, 2s. 7d. per acre. The *tahsíl* contained in 1883, 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 4 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 67 men, besides 61 municipal and town police, and 468 village watchmen and road patrols.

Dhámpur.—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of the Dhámpur *tahsíl*, situated in lat. 29° 18′ 43″ N., and long. 78° 32′ 46″ E. Lies on the road from Moradábád to Hardwár, 24 miles east of Bijnaur. Population (1881) 5708, namely, Hindus, 3457; Muhammadans, 2121; and Jains, 130;

area of town site, 83 acres. Total municipal income (1883), £433, of which £288 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 11¼d. per head. A small but wealthy and well-built town, described by the Sanitary Commissioner in 1876 as 'one of the best-looking small towns in the Province—a town of brick-paved public ways admirably kept in cleanliness.' The main street or *bázár* is a wide and busy thoroughfare, lined with handsome shops, chiefly those of dealers in ironware. The ironsmiths and braziers are noted for the manufacture of iron locks and plates, brass candlesticks and ornaments for native carriages, and gongs and bells of mixed copper and lead. Handsome matchlocks are also made, and a local gunsmith obtained a prize of 750 francs for two specimens sent to the Paris Exhibition in 1867. Markets are held twice a week, and there is a monthly fair. The town is aired by several open places containing fine old trees. To the north stand the *tahsílí* buildings, and to the south a native inn (*sarái*). The other public buildings are a first-class police station, post-office, and *tahsílí* school. The only events of importance in the history of the town are the defeat here of the Mughál forces by the Rohillás, about 1750; its pillage by the Pindárís under Amír Khán in 1805; and the attempted plunder of its treasury during the Mutiny of 1857.

Dhámrá.—River and estuary in Bengal, formed by the combined waters of the BRAHMANI and BAITARANI and their tributaries, which enter the Bay of Bengal in lat. 20° 47′ N., and long. 87° E. The Dhámrá is a fine navigable river, but rendered dangerous by a bar across its mouth. It forms the boundary line between the Districts of Cuttack and Balasor, but lies within the jurisdiction of the latter; the entrance is marked by the Kaniká buoy in 21 feet reduced, and by Shortt's tripod beacon, on the extreme north-east dry portion of Point Palmyras Reef. Since 1866, a second outer channel, with 10 feet at lowest tide, has opened about a mile to the south. The inner bar is constantly shifting. In 1859, 12 feet of water were found here; in 1866, only 3; and in 1870, 8. The water in the Dhámrá estuary rapidly shoals from a minimum depth of 21 feet at the Kaniká buoy to 6 feet on the Central Sand. Within the southern outer channel (minimum depth, 10 feet at low tide) vessels are absolutely sheltered from the monsoon. The Survey Report (dated May 13, 1870) returns the tidal range of the Dhámrá at 10 feet, with variations from a minimum of 6 feet 10 inches to a maximum of 10½ feet. Brigs and Madras traders drawing from 10 to even 18 feet frequent the harbour of the Dhámrá, which was declared a port in 1858, with perfect safety.

Dhámrá.—Port in the estuary of the same name, Cuttack District, Bengal. Lat. 20° 47′ 40″ N., long. 86° 55′ 55″ E. The name is applied to the navigable channels of the rivers forming the DHAMRA, as far as

they are affected by tidal waters. These limits embrace Chándbálí, on the Baitaraní, a seat of coasting steamer traffic, and a rapidly rising town; Hansuá, on the Bráhmaní, formerly a great salt emporium; Pátámundái, on the same river; and Aul, on the Kharsuá,—the three last within Cuttack District. The trade of Chándbálí is mainly steamer traffic, monopolizing almost entirely the import and export trade of BALASOR DISTRICT. The rest of the trade of Dhámrá port is carried on exclusively in sailing ships, and consists chiefly in the export of rice. The eastern boundary of the port is the Dhámrá customs station.

Dhamsia.—Estate of the Sánkheda Mewás, Rewa Kántha, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Area, 10 square miles. Estimated revenue, £400, of which £13 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The estate is under the direct management of the Political Agent.

Dhamtárí. — *Tahsíl* or revenue sub-division in Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 22′ 30″ to 21° 1′ N., long. 80° 41′ 30″ to 81° 46′ 30″ E. Area, 2132 square miles, of which 692 square miles are cultivated, 717 square miles cultivable, and 723 square miles uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 286,694, namely, 140,833 males and 145,861 females, residing in 899 villages and towns, and occupying 94,781 houses; average density of population, 134·5 persons per square mile. Amount of Government assessment, £11,645, or an average of 6½d. per acre of cultivation. Rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £25,668, or 1s. 1¾d. per cultivated acre. Average area of cultivable and cultivated land per head of the agricultural population, 6 acres.

Dhamtárí.—The largest and most important town in the southern portion of Ráipur District, Central Provinces, and the head-quarters of Dhamtárí *tahsíl*, lying in lat. 20° 42′ N., and long. 81° 35′ 30″ E., on the main road from the north to Bastár and Kánker, 36 miles south of Ráipur. Population (1881) 6647, namely, Hindus, 5202; Kabírpanthís, 290; Satnámís, 260; Muhammadans, 371; Jains, 44; persons professing aboriginal religions, 480. The fertile plain around produces crops of wheat, rice, cotton, oil-seeds, and sugar-cane unsurpassed in any part of Chhatísgarh. Dhamtárí does a considerable trade in lac, exporting from 2000 to 2400 bullock-loads yearly. It has a town school, girls' school, dispensary, post-office, and police station.

Dháná.—Village in Ságar *tahsíl*, Ságar District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2223, namely, Hindus, 2086; Muhammadans, 51; Jains, 62; and persons professing aboriginal religions, 24.

Dhanaudah. — Chiefship in Sindhia's territory, under the Gúna (Goona) Sub-Agency of Central India.—*See* DHARNAODA.

Dhanaurá.—Town and municipality in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 28° 58′ N., long. 78° 18′ 30″ E., 9 miles east of the Ganges, and 45 miles by metalled road west from

Moradábád town. Population (1881) 5304, namely, Hindus, 4576; Muhammadans, 724; and Christians, 4. Area of town site, 115 acres. Municipal income in 1881, £421, of which £320 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4d. per head. A compact town, with a neat causewayed market-place. Police station, post-office, and two schools. Depôt of sugar trade.

Dhanauti.—River in Champáran District, Bengal. Formerly a branch of the Lál Begí, a bifurcation of the Lower Harha, a tributary of the Gandak. It is 113 miles long, but has now quite silted up in its upper parts, and for many years has received no flood discharge. It ultimately falls into the Sikhrená, near Sítákúnd. A large iron railway bridge of 220 feet span crosses this river near Motihári town.

Dhandhúka.—Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency. It is bounded on the north, west, and south by Káthiáwár; on the east by the Gulf of Cambay. Area, 1098 square miles. Population (1881) 123,107, namely, 64,003 males and 59,104 females; density of population, 112 persons per square mile. Since 1872 the population has fallen off by 1753. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 103,606, or 84 per cent. of the whole population; Muhammadans number 12,362; 'others' not specified, 7139. The surface of the Sub-division is an open, treeless, black-soil plain, sloping gently towards the Gulf of Cambay. In the west is a tract of bare hills and rough valleys with millet fields and garden patches. Cotton is grown in the centre and wheat in the east. The water-supply is scanty. There are no large rivers. The streams of the Bhádhar and the Utávli lose themselves in marshes. Wells are few, and irrigation limited. In 1877, there were 800 wells, 170 ponds or reservoirs, and 22 streams and springs. The climate is trying, except in the cold season. Rainfall varies from 16 to 24 inches yearly. In the year of the Bombay Settlement for thirty years (1857–58), for the Sub-division there were 140 holdings, with an average area of 30 acres, paying an average rent of £2, 4s. 9d. In 1877, there were 339,804 acres of land under cultivation, of which 27 per cent. was fallow or under grass. There are 2 towns and 139 villages. The Sub-division has 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 126 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 558. Land revenue, £23,089.

Dhandhúka.—Chief town of the Dhandhúka Sub-division, Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency, situated on the right bank of Bhádhar. Lat. 22° 21′ 15″ N., long. 72° 2′ 20″ E., 62 miles south-west of Ahmadábád and 100 miles north-west of Surat. Population (1881) 10,044; municipal revenue (1882–83), £769; rate of taxation, 1s. 3¾d. per head. The town lies in an open plain, exposed to the burning winds of the hot season. Water-supply extremely bad. Borahs form a large class of the population. Coarse cloth, pottery, and carpenter's

work are the chief industries. There are 5 Government schools, one of them for girls. Together with Dholka, the town was ceded to the British in 1802. Dhandhúka, which is a place of some antiquity, has a sub-judge's court, post-office, dispensary, and traveller's bungalow.

Dhaneswari (*Dhansiri*). — River of Assam, rising under Samaguting in the northern spurs of the Bárel mountains, which form the watershed between the Nágá Hills and Cachar; in lat. 25° 20′ N., and long. 93° 24′ E. Its course through the Nágá Hills District is on the whole northerly, through a vast plain of heavy jungle known as the Námbur forest, amid which are to be seen the ruins of Dimápur, until it is joined by the Dayang. The combined stream then turns towards the north-east, and finds its way after many windings into the Brahmaputra, near the village of Bagdwár Chápari, in lat. 26° 44′ N., and long. 93° 42′ E. The only important place on its banks is Golághát, in Sibságar District, which is a centre of trade for the Nágá tribes. Up to this point it is navigable by steamers during the rainy season, but small boats can proceed as high as Dimápur in the cold weather, and boats of about 4 tons burthen can reach the same place in the rains.

Dhangáin.—Pass in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; by which the Old Trunk Road to Sherghátí left the upper plateau for the lower level. Lat. 24° 23′ 30″ N., and long. 84° 59′ 45″ E. It is now impracticable for wheeled traffic, and has fallen into disuse.

Dhángáon.—Guaranteed Thákurate, or petty chiefship, in Central India, under the jurisdiction of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces. The Thákur or Chief receives an allowance of £148 from Sindhia, and £5, 12s. from Holkar. He pays to the British Government a tribute of £100.

Dhánikholá.—Town in Maimansingh District, Bengal, in lat. 24° 39′ 10″ N., long. 90° 24′ 11″ E. Situated on the Satuá river, an insignificant stream, about 12 miles from Nasirábád, the head-quarters town.

Dhanori.—Village in Aroí *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces, situated about 26 miles north-west of Wardhá town. Population about 1000, principally cultivators, with some dyers and weavers. Village school and police outpost station. Small weekly market, held on Fridays.

Dhansiri.—River of Assam.—*See* DHANESWARI.

Dhanu.—River in the south-east of Maimansingh District, Bengal, which falls into the Meghná. Navigable by boats of all sizes throughout the year. It contains fish in abundance.

Dhanúr.—Lake in Sirsa District, Punjab. One of the series of shallow basins of alluvial clay which, connected by short defined channels, form the lower course of the Ghaggar. It is about 3 miles long by 1 broad, but often dries up in the hot weather. The water is

largely used for rice irrigation, being drawn off by long irrigation cuts to the villages lower down. The deepening of the exit channel by erosion has gradually reduced the overflow from which it is fed, and the irrigation has somewhat fallen off of late years in consequence.

Dhanút Bhúra-gyí.—A vast pagoda, now in ruins, in the Angyí township, Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* DANUT-PAYA-GYI.

Dháola Dhar.—Mountain chain in Kángra District, Punjab; formed by a projecting fork of the outer Himálayan range, marking the boundary between the Kángra valley and Chamba. The main system here rises steeply from the lowlands at its base, unbroken by any minor hills, to an elevation of 13,000 feet above the valley beneath. The chain is formed by a mass of granite, which has forced its way through the superincumbent sedimentary rocks, and crowns the summit with its intrusive pyramidal crests, too precipitous for the snow to find a lodging. Below, the waste of snow-fields is succeeded by a belt of pines, giving way to oaks as the flanks are descended, and finally merging into a cultivated vale watered by perennial streams. The highest peak attains an elevation of 15,956 feet above sea-level; while the valley has a general height of about 2000 feet.

Dhápewárá.—A clean and healthy town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces, on either side of the river Chandrabhágá, in a fertile plain. Situated in lat. 21° 18′ N., and long. 78° 57′ E., 20 miles north-west of Nágpur. Population (1881) 3666, namely, Hindus, 3455; Muhammadans, 197; and Jains, 14. The inhabitants are chiefly Koshtís, employed in the manufacture of cotton cloth, of which industry Dhápewárá was one of the earliest seats in the District. The fort, now dilapidated, was built for protection against the Pindárís about seventy-five years ago. Seat of an honorary magistrate's court.

Dhár.—Native State under the Bhíl (Bheel) or Bhopáwar Agency, Central India; situated between 22° 1′ and 23° 8′ N. lat., and between 74° 43′ and 75° 35′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Rutlam Native State, on the east by Sindhia's tracts of Barnagar, Ujjain and Dikthán, and by Indore; on the south by the Narbadá; and on the west by the State of Jhabua and Sindhia's district of Amjhera. The Dhár State is divided, for judicial and revenue purposes, into seven *parganás*, namely, Dhár, Badnáwar, Nalcha, Dhárampuri, Kúksi, Tíkrí, and Nímanpur-Mukrar, the last being a desolate outlying *parganá* resting on the Narbadá, and separated from the remainder of the State by the whole breadth of Indore. Feudatories of the Dhár State are the following Rájput chiefs and nobles who hold their lands under the guarantee of the British Government, and pay tribute or *tankha* to the State, namely, Multán, Kachhi-Baroda, Dhotria, Badwal, Bakhtgarh, Kod, Katodia, Manglia, Dharsikhera, Bairsia, Murwadia, and Panah; also the following Bhúmia or Bhíl and

Bhílálá chiefs residing principally in the Dhárampuri and Nalcha *parganás*, namely, Mota-Barkhera, Chota-Barkhera, Nimkhera, Kali-Baori, Garhi, Jamnia (who pays tribute for the village of Dábir) and Rájgarh. The former chiefs or *thákurs* have the exclusive management of their own lands, which, however, does not extend to a power of life and death; and all their subjects have the right of appeal to the Rájá of Dhár, who exercises general supremacy, the chiefs yielding him service and allegiance. This arrangement was due to Sir John Malcolm. The Bhúmiás and Bhílálá chiefs have far less power than the *thákurs*, and are responsible for indemnifying all robberies occurring within their limits, and also for the general peace of their part of the country.

Physical Aspects.—The only river of any size actually in the Dhár State is the Chamla, a tributary of the Chambal, which latter runs for a short distance through the east corner of the Dhár *parganá*. At Khal there is a fair-weather trestle bridge over the Narbadá, and a ferry at the same place in the rains. Rivers of minor importance are the Maun, with a course of 35 miles, the Karúm, with a course of 24 miles, and the Bángní, all of them dry for the most part during the warm season, but becoming torrents in the rains. The Vindhyas, with an elevation here of from 1600 to 1700 feet above the Narbadá valley, runs across the southern portion of the State. Numerous passes lead through the range to the plain below; but with the exception of two, the Golpura and the Barúdpura, they are all difficult and unsuited for wheeled carriage. Among the wild animals are the tiger, leopard, bear, wild hog, and deer of various kinds. Iron ore of good quality exists all along the hills, but is nowhere worked. Above the Vindhyas the climate is mild, the nights always cool, and the hot season of short duration; but below the *ghát*s, the heat is sometimes excessive. At the close of the rains fever is very prevalent, and guinea-worm is very common in the State. The mean annual rainfall for the five years ending 1881 was 33 inches. Nearly every variety of grain is grown in the fertile lands above the *ghát*s. About one-third of the wheat and gram crop is exported. A large quantity of opium, sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, linseed, and turmeric is also produced. The principal roads through the State are the Indore and Gujarát postal line, *viâ* Sardárpur, and on to Dohud in Gujarát; the road to Dúdi from Ratlam, along which route much opium passes; and 67 miles of the new road from Mhow to Nasírabad. Various minor roads lead from the capital of the State to the surrounding country.

History.—The present Rájá of Dhár, Anand Ráo Puár, K.C.S.I., who was born about 1843, is a Puár Rájput. The annals of his State are part of the general annals of Málwá, the towns of Ujjain and Dhár at one period or another supplying a capital for the legendary Hindu

dynasties of the region. Early story assigns to the Puárs a sovereignty lasting more than a thousand years, and dating from a period long anterior to the Christian era. Among the semi-mythical Puárs, the names of Vikramáditya (claimed as an ancestor by the present chief of Dhár) and Rájá Bhoj are given special prominence. Rájá Bhoj is said to have transferred the capital from Ujjain to Dhár. About 500 A.D., as the tradition runs, the Puárs' power declined before the rise of one Rájput house after another; and about this time the family is supposed to have made their way to Púna (Poona), in the Deccan. The true historical period, in Málwá as in the greater part of India, commences with the consolidation of the Muhammadan power towards the end of the 14th century. In 1398, Diláwan Khán came as governor from Delhi, and with the materials of the great Hindu temples of Dhár built mosques for the followers of Islám. Diláwan's son, who succeeded his father as viceroy, transferred the capital from Dhár to Mandú. And from the time of Akbar's visit in 1567, not long after the transfer, until the ascendancy of the Maráthás, the Dhár State became an insignificant part of a province of the Delhi Empire.

The Puárs who migrated to the Deccan eventually supplied some of their most distinguished commanders to the great Maráthá leader Sivaji and his warlike successors. The present Dhár dynasty was founded by Anand Ráo, who in 1749 received the grant of Dhár from Bájí Ráo Peshwá. For twenty years before the British conquest of Málwá, Dhár was subjected to a series of spoliations by Sindhia and Holkar, and was preserved from destruction only by the talents and courage of Mína Bái, widow of Anand Ráo II. and adoptive mother of Rámchandra Puár, the fifth in descent from the founder of the family. Rámchandra Puár was succeeded by his adopted son, Jeswant Ráo, who died in 1857, and was succeeded by his half-brother, Anand Ráo, the present Rájá. The State was confiscated for rebellion in 1857, but subsequently restored to Anand Ráo (then a minor), with the exception of the District of Bairsia, which was granted to the Sekandar Begam of Bhopál.

The area of the State is 1740 square miles. The population in 1881 was returned at 149,244, namely, 115,051 Hindus, 12,269 Muhammadans, 3087 Jains, 12 Pársís, 27 Christians, and 18,798 'aborigines.' The principal castes found in Dhár are Rájputs, Kanbís, Maráthás, Bhíls, and Bhílálás. The revenue is £74,312. By the treaty of January 1819, Dhár was taken under British protection. The State pays a contribution of £1965 to the Málwá Bhíl corps. The military force consists of 276 cavalry and about 800 infantry, including police, 2 guns, and 21 artillerymen. The chief has received a *sanad* of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. There is 1 English

school and 18 vernacular schools, 2 dispensaries and a new hospital recently built by the Rájá.

Dhár.—Chief town of Dhár State under the Bhíl or Bhopáwar Agency of Central India; situated in lat. 23° 36′ N., and long. 75° 4′ E., on the route from Mau (Mhow) to Baroda, 33 miles west of the former and 183 miles east of the latter. The present town is nearly 1¼ miles in length and half a mile in breadth, surrounded by a mud wall, and contains many striking buildings, especially two large decayed mosques built of red stone. Water is abundant, being supplied from two small and eight large tanks. A fort, built of red stone, is situated outside the town on an eminence 40 feet above the plain, and is surrounded by a rampart 30 to 35 feet high, with 24 round and 2 square towers, on the larger of which last stands the palace of the chief. The gate is on the western face, and is defended by an octagonal tower. The fort was the scene of operations of a British force under General Stewart in 1857. Elevation of the town above the sea, 1908 feet. Population (1881) 15,224, namely, Hindus, 11,858; Muhammadans, 2832; 'others,' 534. Post-office, dispensary, and opium weighing-machine under European supervision.

Dhárákot.—*Zamíndárí* or estate, 8 miles north-west of Aska, on the Rishikulya river, in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 125 square miles; number of villages, 188; population (1881) 31,691. The estate is divided into 3 sub-divisions—Jahada *mutá*, with 85 villages; Kunanogodo *mutá*, with 37 villages; and Sahasrango *mutá*, with 66 villages. *Peshkash*, or quit-rent, payable to Government, £2496. With the neighbouring divisions of Suráda, Bodogoda, and Sergada, Dhárákot formed part of the ancient estate of Khidsinghi, constituted by the Gajapati sovereigns of Orissa in the 12th century. In 1476, the Khidsinghi family divided their property into four baronies, of which Dhárákot is one.

Dharamkota.—Shrine in Kistna District, Madras Presidency.—*See* AMRAVATI (*Amraoti*).

Dharampur.—Native State within the Political Agency of Surat, Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by the Chikhli Sub-division of Surat District and the State of Bánsda; on the east by the State of Surgáná and the Dángs; on the south by the State of Peint; and on the west by the Balsár and Párdi Sub-divisions of Surat District. The territory is 40 miles long from north to south, and 20 in breadth from east to west; contains 1 town and 272 villages. Area, 794 square miles. Population (1881) 101,289, namely, 15,549 Hindus, 1707 Muhammadans, and 84,033 'others.' A small portion of the State only is cultivable; the rest is hilly, rocky, and covered with forest and brushwood. Dharampur is well supplied with rivers: the Damangangá, the Kolak, the Par, the Aurangá, and

the Ambika flow through the State on their way to the Gulf of Cambay. Except in Dharampur town and a few other villages, where there are reservoirs, wells and river-pools are the only source of the water-supply. The rainfall is estimated at over 70 inches yearly. The climate is very unhealthy. Prevailing diseases are fever, dropsy, diarrhœa, and asthma. The principal products are the flower of the *mahuá* (Bassia latifolia), teak, blackwood, and bamboos; the crops—rice, pulse, gram, and sugar-cane; the manufactures—mats, baskets, fans, molasses, catechu, and pottery. A cart-road, passing southwards through Peint, connects the State of Dharampur with Násik station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, while another rougher track running westwards, and passable for carts except during the rains, joins it with Balsár station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. There is a regular post, kept up by the Chief, between Balsár and Dharampur. The gross revenue is estimated at £25,000. In 1882 there were 6 schools, with 275 pupils. The present (1883) Chief is a Hindu of the Sesodiá clan of Rájputs, who claim descent from the Solar race. His name is Náráyandevjí Ramdevjí, and his title Rájá Maháráná Srí. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. Persons convicted of murder are punished with life imprisonment. The Chief administers the State himself, and maintains a military force of 207 men, with 4 field guns. The house follows the rule of primogeniture in point of succession, and holds a *sanad* authorizing adoption. It is probable that the territory of Dharampur, or Rámnagar, as it was originally called, was once much more extensive than now, stretching westward as far as the sea-coast. In 1576, the Chief of Rámnagar went to meet Akbar's minister Todar Mall at Broach, and accepted military rank at his hands. Seventy-two of the Dharampur villages were wrested away by the Maráthás early in the 18th century. The claims of the Peshwá on the revenues of the State were ceded to the British under the terms of the treaty of Bassein (1802), and are still levied by officers of the British Government; they yield a yearly sum of from £600 to £700. A district constabulary has recently been formed. In all, there are 8 schools in the State.

Dharampur.—Chief town of the Native State of Dharampur, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 20° 34′ N., and long. 73° 14′ E. Population (1881) 5176, namely, 2271 Hindus, 841 Muhammadans, 33 Pársís, and 2031 'others.' Three vernacular schools, one of them for girls. There is also a dispensary where vaccination is being gradually introduced.

Dharampuri.—*Parganá* of Dhár State, Bhíl (Bheel) Agency, Central India. Population (1881) 18,574; number of houses, 4273,

distributed in 138 villages. Agricultural stock—horned cattle, 16,888. Number of wells, 560. Revenue, £6898.

Dharampuri.—Town in the Dharampuri *parganá* of the Dhár Native State, Central India; situated on the north bank of the Narbadá, in latitude 22° 10′ N., and longitude 75° 26′ E., and distant about 36 miles south-west from Dhár. During the period of Muhammadan rule at Dhár, the town is said to have contained 10,000 houses, and the ruins of the old town extend far beyond its present limits. It now contains about 500 inhabitants, but is gradually extending.

Dhárangáon.—Town and municipality in Erandol Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 21° N., longitude 75° 20′ 20″ E.; 35 miles east by north of Dhúliá, and 20 miles west of the railway station of Jalgáon. Population (1881) 13,081; municipal income (1882–83), £421; municipal expenditure, £582; rate of taxation per head of municipal population (12,388), 6⅝d. Dhárangáon has a post-office, and is the head-quarters of the District superintendent of police and of the Bhíl Corps. The lines for the Corps afford accommodation for 200 families. A considerable trade in cotton and oil-seeds is carried on with Jalgáon, where many of the Dhárangáon merchants have agents. The paper and cloth of Dhárangáon were formerly held in esteem. At present the manufacture of paper has entirely ceased; but the weaving of coarse cloth still gives employment to more than 100 looms. In the year 1855, Government established a cotton-ginning factory at Dhárangáon, with 93 saw-gins, under the management of a European overseer; merchants and cultivators were charged £1 a month for the use of a gin. But the experiment proved costly, and was subsequently abandoned. Under Maráthá rule, Dhárangáon was the scene of a terrible massacre of Bhíls, who had on several occasions plundered the town. A factory was established here by the English in 1674. The following year the town was plundered by Sivají, and again in 1679 by Sivají in conjunction with the Rájá of Berár. It was at that time one of the most flourishing marts in this part of the country. Six years later, in 1685, it was again plundered and burnt by Sambhají. In 1818, Dhárangáon came into the possession of the British Government; and it was here that Lieutenant, afterwards Sir James, Outram was engaged from 1825 to 1830, in improving the position of the Bhíls, by training them in an irregular corps. The town is badly supplied with drinking water. The most remarkable building is Outram's Bungalow, now used as an office by the Assistant-Collector. Its main hall is 40 feet long, 34 broad, and 16 high. Dhárangáon contains four schools.

Dhárapuram.—*Táluk* in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 195,232, namely, 94,800 males and 100,432 females:

number of houses, 43,554. Bounded on the north by Erode *táluk*; on the east by Karúr; on the west by Palladam and Udumalpatai; and on the south by the Paláni *táluk* of Madúra District. Contains 82 villages with their numerous hamlets, and an area of 835 square miles, of which 389,436 acres are occupied at an assessment of £33,801. The *táluk* is chiefly dry land, only 7117 acres being irrigated: 77 per cent. of the soil is entered as red sand. The rivers of the *táluk* are the Amrávati, Uppár, and Noyel; the first is crossed by 6 anicuts supplying irrigation channels; there are numerous private wells, by which good crops are raised; the uplands are poor and badly tilled. The assessment averages 1s. 6d. per acre for dry, and 16s. for wet land. A large portion of the land is devoted to pasture, cattle being more numerous here than in the surrounding *táluks*. There are no forests or hills. The population is almost solely agricultural. Shops are few; but large weekly markets, especially at Kangayám and Dhárapuram, supply the needs of the villagers. The chief products are cereals, pulses, tobacco, oil-seeds, cotton, and jaggery. The *táluk* is well supplied with roads, and contains 2 criminal courts, with a deputy *tahsíldár* at Kangayám, 2 post-offices, 7 police stations, several schools, including a middle school at Dhárapuram, and a dispensary. Number of regular police, 68 men. Arrack and toddy shops number 165. Except Dhárapuram town, there are no places of importance in the *táluk*. The Sivanmalai temple and the Nattaroyen Kovil, near Vella Kovil, are much resorted to by the people. Aqua marines were found formerly near Sivanmalai, and rock crystals of good size, form, and lucidity are often found; so also is corundum. The *táluk* is on the whole healthy, being dry and open to the south-west winds from the Palghát gap.

Dhárapuram (*Dárapur*).—Chief town in Dhárapuram *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Situated in latitude 10° 44′ 35″ N., and longitude 77° 34′ 28″ E., 46 miles east-south-east of Coimbatore and 250 from Madras. Population (1881) 7310, namely, 5579 Hindus, 1525 Muhammadans, and 206 Christians; number of houses, 1327. The town lies on the left bank of the river Amrávati, in a plateau of open country 909 feet above the sea, which stretches nearly to the Palani mountains, about 15 miles south. A channel from the river bisects the town. Dhárapuram is said to have been the capital of the Kshatriyá King Bhaja, and is otherwise interesting as having, in 1667, and again in 1746, been taken from Madura by Mysore. In the campaigns with Haidar Alí and Tipú Sáhib, it was also a point of some strategical importance, being captured by Colonel Wood in 1768, retaken by Haidar in the same year, again occupied by the British in 1783, given up by the treaty of Mangalore, and finally resumed in 1790 by General Medows. In 1792 the fort was dismantled. For a time Dhárapuram was the seat of the District

court, but is now only the head-quarters of the *táluk*, and as such possesses the usual subordinate administrative establishments, a police station, post-office, school, and dispensary. At the weekly market held here, the *ghí*, paddy, and chillies, which, with tobacco, pulses, and oil-seed, form the staple products of the *táluk*, are collected for export in exchange for metal-ware and cloth. The town is connected by road with three railway stations—Tirupur, Penundurai, and Karúr, the nearest being 30 miles distant.

Dhari.—Petty State of Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 3¾ square miles; there are 6 shareholders. The estimated revenue is £250, and a tribute of £95 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dharlá (or *Torshá*).—River of Bengal, which rises in the Bhután Hills, flows south through the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí District, passing through the centre of Madárí *parganá*, till it enters Kuch Behar territory at Nekobarpárá village. Chief tributaries in Jalpáigurí, the Bhelá Kubá and the Hánsmárá. Its course through Kuch Behar is tortuous, its old beds and affluents forming a perfect network of channels. Gives off the Torshá river in Kuch Behar; joined by the Singímárí or Jáldhaká near Durgápur; turns south through Rangpur District, and falls into the Brahmaputra at Bagwá, in lat. 25° 40′ N., and long. 89° 47′ 30″ E. Navigable by cargo-boats during the rains.

Dharma (or *Darmá*).—Tract of country in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the southern side of the main Himálayan range; situated between 30° 5′ and 30° 30′ N., and between 80° 25′ and 80° 45′ E. Of considerable elevation—its chief peak, Lebong, rising 18,942 feet above sea-level; while the Dharma Pass, on the northern frontier, leading into Hundes, reaches a height of about 15,000 feet. The habitable portion consists of narrow and very rugged valleys, traversed by the Kálí river (which rises in this tract), its chief tributary the Dhaulí, and other feeder streams. The inhabitants are Bhotiyás, a Tibetan race, who carry on a trade between Hundes and Kumáun, by means of pack-sheep, over the Dharma Pass. Estimated area, about 400 square miles.

Dharmánpur.—*Parganá* in Nánpárá *tahsíl*, Bahráich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nepál, on the east and south by Nánpárá *parganá*, and on the west by the Kauriála river, separating it from Kherí District. It was formerly included in Dhaurahra, and was only constituted a separate *parganá* since the British annexation of Oudh. Largely occupied by forest tracts, which comprise 172 square miles out of a total area of 304. The remainder, 132 square miles, is occupied by 64 villages, the cultivated area being only 47 square miles. Population (1881) 25,761, namely, males 14,097, and females 11,664. The Government land revenue, which, on account of the large area of cultivable waste land available, has been fixed at a rate progressively

increasing every ten years, is as follows:—1871, £3303; 1881, £4177; 1891, £5052. Average incidence of final assessment, 2s. 1¾d. per acre of cultivated area; 10¼d. per acre of assessable area, and 8¾d. per acre of total area. Graziers from all parts of Northern Oudh drive their herds into the forests of this *pargań*. Game of every description abounds.

Dharmápatam.—River in Malabár District, Madras Presidency, falling into the sea 3 miles north of Tellicherri. DHARMAPATAM town is situated on an island formed by the mouths of this river.

Dharmápatam (*Dharmáfattan; Dharmatam*; the *Dehfattan of* Ibn Batuta, and the *Darmaftan* of the Tahfat-al-Mujahidín).—An island town in the Kotáyam *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency, lying on the river of the same name, in latitude 11° 46′ N., longitude 75° 30′ E. Area, 6 square miles. Population (1881) 5899, dwelling in 760 houses. Dharmápatam formerly belonged to the kingdom of Kolattiri, but was ceded in 1734 to the East India Company. In 1788 it was taken by the Chhirakkal Rájá, but recovered in 1789.

Dharmápuri.—*Táluk* in Salem District, Madras Presidency. The most southerly of the sub-divisional *táluks*, and once a portion of the ancient province known as the Baramahal. Bounded on the north by Hosur and Krishnagiri *táluks*; on the west by Hosur and the Bhawáni *táluk* of Coimbatore District; on the south by the Thopúr river; and on the east by the Krishnagiri and Uttankarai *táluks* of Salem District. Population (1881) 135,826, namely, 66,200 males and 69,626 females. Number of houses, 28,108. Classified according to religion—Hindus, 129,751; Muhammadans, 3888; Christians, almost exclusively Roman Catholics, 2187. The area is 937 square miles (599,680 acres). The *táluk* is entered from the south by the Thopúr pass, memorable in the narrative of military operations during the wars with Haidar Alí and Tipú Sultán. The country around is hilly, and from Thopúr the *ghát* road winds through picturesque mountain and valley scenery. The *táluk* is sparsely wooded. The only rivers are the Chennár and the Thopúr, the former much used for irrigation. The soil is chiefly ferruginous loam and sand, with (in the valleys) black alluvial clay. Iron-ore is the only mineral product. The average elevation of the *táluk* is from 1500 to 1700 feet above sea-level. The climate is hot and dry. The rainfall for ten years ending 1875 averaged 21 inches. Tamil is the language most spoken. Rice and *ragí* are the staple articles of food. There are 7 ferries. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police stations, 13; regular police, 108 men. Land revenue, £15,529. The area liable to revenue is distributed as follows:—Government villages, 440,132 acres; *mutá* (or permanently assessed) and *shotriem* (or revenue-free) villages, 144,769 acres. The extent actually under cultivation in *rayatwárí* villages is 110,363 acres, paying £13,649. The

staples of cultivation are *ragí* on dry, and rice on wet lands; but other grain crops, as *varagu*, *cumba*, and *cholam* are also grown largely. The rates of assessment vary from 6d. to 15s. an acre, according to the quality and class of land. Irrigation is carried on from small rivers, 385 tanks, 56 minor reservoirs, and 8683 wells. The irrigated area in 1881 was 8140 acres, assessed at £3731.

Dharmápuri.—Town in Dharmápuri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency; situated in latitude 12° 9′ N., and longitude 78° 13′ E., 42 miles by road north of Salem. Population (1881) 7090, namely, 6131 Hindus, 895 Muhammadans, and 64 Christians. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, it contains the subordinate, judicial, and magisterial courts, a post-office, police station, school, and dispensary. The town is healthy, and the water-supply abundant. Until 1688, Dharmápuri belonged to the kingdom of Aura, but in that year was annexed by Mysore. In 1768 it was captured by Colonel Wood, but reoccupied by Haidar Alí until the signature of peace. Was for some years the residence of Sir Thomas Munro, Governor of Madras.

Dharmávaram.—*Táluk* of Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1192 square miles, with a population (1881) of 97,106, or 81 persons to the square mile. Of the total area, 266,489 acres are cultivated, only 22,078, however, being under 'wet' crops, owing to the insufficiency of irrigation works. About 100 miles of made road connect the large towns—Dharmávaram, Kalyandrúg, Konderpidrúg, and Kambadúr—with each other. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 12; regular police, 80 men. Land revenue, £10,061. Chief town, DHARMAVARAM.

Dharmávaram.—Town in Dharmávaram *táluk*, Anantápur District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 24′ N., long. 77° E. Population (1881) 5916, namely, 5086 Hindus, 822 Muhammadans, and 8 Christians; number of houses, 1534. Situated on the Chitrávati river, 50 miles south of Gútti (Gooty) and 196 north-west of Madras. It is the head-quarters of the *táluk*, and the market held here is of considerable local importance. Said to have been founded by Kriyasakti Wodeyar, and formerly fortified.

Dharmkot.—Town in the Zirá *tahsíl* of Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 56′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 16′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 6007, namely, 1950 Hindus, 2673 Muhammadans, and 1384 Sikhs. Lies on the road from Firozpur to Ludhiána, 56 miles east of the former city. Originally known as Kotálpur, but renamed after its occupation in 1760 by the Sikh chieftain, Tára Singh, of the Dallewála confederacy, who built a fort, now destroyed. Well paved and drained. Middle-class school, *sarái*, police station. Many wealthy merchants; large trade in grain. Dharmkot being situated near the Grank Trunk Road, with a good *bázár*, and being the only town in the immediate

neighbourhood, a considerable trade is carried on in piece-goods, brought to the market *viâ* Ludhiána, and in grain. Many well-to-do native merchants reside in the town in substantial houses of two and three storeys high. Good *bázár*, police station, school-house, native inn (*sarái*), with accommodation also for European travellers. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1882–83 of £259; expenditure, £188.

Dharmpur.—Village in Hardoi District, Oudh; 11 miles east of Fatehgarh, and the first encamping-ground on the route from Fatehgarh to Lucknow and Hardoi. Noteworthy as the residence of Rájá Tilak Singh, brother of the late Sir Hardeo Baksh, K.C.S.I., in whose fort were loyally sheltered several English officers during the Mutiny. Population (1881) 1256; number of houses, 161.

Dharmsála.—Hill station, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Kángra District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 15′ 42″ N., long. 76° 22′ 46″ E. Dharmsála lies on a spur of the DHAOLA DHAR, 16 miles north-east of Kángra town, in the midst of wild and picturesque scenery. It occupies the site of an old Hindu sanctuary or *dharmsála* (whence the name), and originally formed a subsidiary cantonment for the troops stationed at Kángra. In 1855, the District head-quarters were removed to the spot; and a small town rapidly collected around the civil station. It now contains several private European residences, a church, two large barracks for soldiers temporarily invalided from English regiments, three *bázárs*, public gardens and assembly rooms, court-house, jail, treasury, hospital, and other public buildings. Population (1881), including the cantonment population of 1483, 5322, namely, Hindus, 4630; Sikhs, 5; Muhammadans, 591; and 'others,' 96; number of houses, 789. This may be taken as the regular resident population, the Census having been taken in the winter month of February. There is also a considerable fluctuating population of visitors from the plains during the summer months. The municipal area had a population of 3839 persons in 1881. Municipal income (1882–83), £445, or 2s. 3¾d. per head of the municipal population; expenditure, £462. The town and cantonments stretch along the hill-side, with an elevation varying from 4500 to 6500 feet. The churchyard contains a monument in memory of Lord Elgin, who died at Dharmsála in 1863. Picturesque waterfalls and other objects of interest lie within reach of an easy excursion. A cart-road connects the town with Jalandhar (Jullundur) on the plains; supplies can be obtained at moderate prices; and the station bids fair to become a favourite retreat for civilians and invalids. The rainfall, however, is very heavy; its annual average being returned at 148·3 inches. Trade is confined to the supply of necessaries for European residents and their servants.

Dharnaoda.—A petty Chiefship in the Gúna (Goona) Sub-Agency,

under the Gwalior Agency, Central India. The State consists of 32 villages, yielding an annual revenue of about £900; population (1881) 4196. The present *thákur*, Bhúm Singh, is descended from *thákur* Chatar Sál, who was given Dharnaoda for his separate maintenance, with the possession of Raghagarh, according to the arrangements made in 1843, under the guarantee by the British Government. The family belongs to the Chauhán Rhichi clan of Rájputs. Thieving and cattle-lifting are incessant in the State.

Dharupur.—Village in Partábgarh District, Oudh; 24 miles from Bela, and 16 from Mánikpur. Founded by Dháru Sáh, the ancestor of the present *tálukdár*, whose fort and residence are still in existence. During the Mutiny, British refugees were hospitably received here. At the *bázár* adjoining the fort, a considerable trade is carried on, the annual sales reaching £10,000 in value, the market days being Wednesday and Saturday. Population (1881), Hindus, 2002, and Muhammadans, 496; total, 2498. Three Sivaite temples; Government school.

Dhárwár. — British District in the Southern Maráthá country, Bombay Presidency; lying between 14° 15′ and 15° 51′ N. lat., and between 74° 47′ and 76° 55′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Belgáum and Kaládgi; on the east by the Haidarábád (Hyderábád) territory of the Nizam, and the river Tungabhadra which separates Dhárwár from the District of Bellary, Madras Presidency; on the south by the State of Mysore; and on the west by the District of North Kánara. Its greatest length from north to south is 116 miles, and its greatest breadth 77 miles. Area, 4535 square miles. Population (1881) 882,907.

Physical Aspects. — Dhárwár District is roughly divided into two belts, characterized by differences of configuration, soil, and products. The Belgáum and Harihar road may be considered the dividing line. To the north and north-east of that road, in the Sub-divisions of Nawalgund, Ron, and the greater part of Gadag, spread vast unbroken plains of black soil, which produce abundant crops of cotton. In the south-eastern portion of this plain are the Kapad Hills; and again, after passing over a stretch of black soil in the Karajgi Sub-division, there is an undulating country of red soil, which reaches to the boundary of Mysore. The western belt of the District is traversed by low hills, extending from the southern bank of the river Málprabha to near the Mysore frontier. This tract consists of a succession of low ranges covered with herbage and brushwood. The ranges are separated by flat valleys; and it is to these valleys and the lower slopes of the hills that cultivation is chiefly confined. Farther west, the country becomes still more hilly, and the trees increase in size towards the frontier of North Kánara. In this tract all the Government forest reserves are

to be found. The Sub-divisions of Hángal and Kod, to the south of Dhárwár, present almost the same appearance, small hills rising out of the plain in all directions with fertile valleys between. The number of tanks in these Sub-divisions is a special feature in the landscape; but, with some marked exceptions, they are small and shallow, retaining water for not more than three or four months after the rains.

From its position on the summit of the watershed of the Peninsula, Dhárwár is devoid of large rivers. Of its seven principal streams, six run eastwards towards the Bay of Bengal, and one penetrates through the Western Gháts to the Arabian Sea. (1) The Málprabha, for about 20 miles, forms the northern boundary of the District, dividing it from Kaládgi. (2) The Bennihalla has its source about 20 miles south of the town of Hubli, and, flowing northwards through the central plain of the District, falls into the Málprabha. Its water is brackish, and soon dries up. (3) The Tungabhadra, on the south-eastern frontier, divides Dhárwár from Mysore and Bellary in Madras. (4) The Warda, a tributary of the Tungabhadra, passes from the south-west to east through two of the southern Sub-divisions of the District. (5) The Dharma crosses Dhárwár in the south, and eventually joins the Warda; and (6) the Kumadwati flows north-east through Kod Sub-division, falling into the Tungabhadra near Holianaweri. (7) The one westward-flowing stream is the Birti Nálá or Gangawali, which passes through the Kalghatgi Sub-division. None of these rivers are navigable, and the only one used for irrigation is the Dharma, in the Hángal *táluk*. A dam across it diverts its water, when the river is high, into a channel on the north side, which extends as far as Adúr, a distance of about 6 miles in direct line. This is an old irrigation work constructed under native rule. The channel, besides irrigating a large area, directly feeds a number of small tanks which depend on it for their supply. The waters of the Málprabha and Warda are considered the best for drinking, while the water of the Tungabhadra is said by the natives to be heavy and exceptionally sweet. In the west, near the hills, the rainfall is abundant; and as the natural unevenness of the ground offers suitable sites, many tanks have been constructed, and a sufficient supply of water is thus kept in store. But in the central and eastern portion of Dhárwár, the water-supply is very scanty, and the flat surface of the country presents few natural advantages for the storage of water on a large scale. Though almost every village has its own tank, the want of drinking water is at times keenly felt, for the shallow tanks rapidly become choked with the drainage from the black cotton-soil. Even in a season of ample rainfall, they dry up by the beginning of March. In 1869, the inhabitants of some of the villages in the plain were forced to fetch their water from distances of 10 or 12 miles, while many migrated with their cattle to the banks of the Tungabhadra and Málprabha.

Nor can a sufficient supply be easily obtained from wells. In most parts the water-bearing strata lie far below the surface, occasionally as deep as 80 or 90 feet, while the water obtained is often found to be brackish. Large sums are spent annually on the reservoirs and tanks of the District. The 'black soil,' or *regar*, occurs in beds from a few inches to 30 or 40 feet in depth, but it is interrupted by chains of hills, and at places covered by alluvial soil and pebbles washed down from their sides. In the north-east of the District some singular hills are met with, rising abruptly out of the plain as isolated landmarks. They are not more than 300 feet high; and the stone varies much in structure, being a loose variegated gritty substance, which sometimes approaches a compact quartz rock, showing grey, whitish yellow, and red bands of all shades of colour. The Kapad Hills are principally composed of hornblende and chloritic schists, gneiss, and mica slate. Manganese is found in considerable quantities. Some of the hills are capped with laterite. The bed of the Doni rivulet, which has its rise in these hills, contains gravel and sand, in which gold dust is found associated with magnetic iron-sand, grains of platinum, grey carbonate of silver, and copper. It is, however, chiefly among the chlorite slate hills on the western side that gold is found. The zone of hills on the west of the District, from 15 to 25 miles broad, consists entirely of various hypogene schists. In its northern part, jaspideous schists predominate; in the centre, these pass into chloritic and argillaceous slates and shales of all shades of white, yellow, red, brown, and green, interstratified with beds of white or iron coloured quartz, and of jaspideous rock. These layers generally form crests and mural ridges on the summits of the hills, which run in parallel ranges north-west by north, and south-east by south.

In former times, gold is said to have been obtained in abundance, and even now the Kapad range of hills in the neighbourhood of Dambal in the east of the District, and the beds of streams issuing from them, yield some gold. Washing is practised by a class of people called Jalgárs, but their employment is not constant, being carried on only for a short time in every year after the flood. At this season their gains are said not to average more than from 9d. to 1s. a day. In the hills in the west of the District, iron was formerly smelted in considerable quantities. Owing, however, to the great destruction of timber during the past forty years, fuel has become scarce, and this industry is now only carried on to a limited extent. The iron made is of superior quality, but cannot as a general rule compete in cheapness with imported iron. The western or hilly portion of the District contains much forest land, which has been set apart by Government for reserves. The black-soil plains, on the other hand, suffer from a scarcity of trees; timber for building purposes has to be brought from

great distances, and sun-dried cakes of cow-dung are the chief fuel. To supply these wants, strict conservation, with replanting, is now being carried on in the Government forest reserves.

Feræ Naturæ.—Of wild animals, the District contains the tiger, leopard, bear, wolf, hyæna, fox, jackal, wild hog; and of game, the spotted deer and common antelope. Most of the rivers and tanks contain fish, and in the larger reservoirs some of great size are caught.

History.—The territory comprised within the present District of Dhárwár appears to have formed part of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar, which rose to power in the 14th century. On the overthrow of the Vijayanagar dynasty at the battle of Tálikot, in 1564, by a confederacy of Musalmán princes, Dhárwár was annexed to the Muhammadan kingdom of Bijápur. In 1675, the country was overrun, and partially conquered, by the Maráthás under Sivají; and from that time, for about a century, remained subject first to the Maráthá ruler of Satára, and afterwards to the Peshwá of Poona. In 1776, under Haidar Alí, the usurper of Mysore, the Musalmáns again occupied Dhárwár; but before five years were over, by the help of a British force, the Maráthás, in 1791, captured a second time the fort and town of Dhárwár. The country remained under Maráthá management till 1818, when, on the overthrow of the Peshwá by the British, it was incorporated with the Bombay Presidency. There are many old forts scattered through the District, and a few religious buildings, elaborately sculptured, and of beautiful though somewhat heavy design. The chief modern buildings are the religious houses or *maths* of the Lingáyat sect. These are ugly but commodious structures, used as a residence for the priests or *ayahas*, and also to a large extent as resting places for travellers.

Population.—In 1872, the population of the District was 989,671. The Census of 1881 returned a total population of 882,907 persons, or 195 to the square mile. There has thus been a falling off of 106,764 persons since 1872. Of the population in 1881, 769,349, or 87 per cent., were Hindus; 100,622, or 11·40 per cent., Musalmáns; 2356, or 0·30 per cent., Christians, including 79 Europeans, 73 East Indians, and 2204 native converts; 10,526, or 1·20 per cent., Jains; 31 Pársís; 18 Jews; and 5 Buddhists. The males numbered 442,035, the females 440,872; percentage of males in the total population, 50·07. Classified according to caste, the Hindus included 28,403 Bráhmans; 3450 Rájputs; 54,254 Beráds; 2545 Chamárs; 6579 Shimpis (tailors); 87,568 Dhángars; 6869 Dhobís (washermen); 6880 Hajjáms (barbers); 39,116 Jangams; 44,345 Kunbis (cultivators); 4410 Kolís (cultivators); 18,953 Koshtís (weavers); 2641 Kumbhárs (potters); 4359 Lingáyats; 1217 Lohárs (blacksmiths); 1545 Málís (gardeners); 27,612 Mángs (inferior caste); 11,392 Mahárs (inferior caste); 135,357

Panchamsálís; 21,686 Reddis; 2405 Sonárs (goldsmiths); 2014 Sutárs (carpenters); 22,499 Telís (oilmen); and 233,127 'other' Hindus. Among the Muhammadans are included 7994 Patháns; 13,118 Sayyids; 78,261 Shaikhs; and 'others,' 1249. Of the adult males in the six classes into which the Census divides the people as regards occupation, there were in all 442,025; namely, in the professional class, 13,750; in the domestic, 4422; in the commercial, 3540; in the agricultural, 207,143; in the industrial, 53,499; and in the indefinite and non-productive, 159,681. Of the 1285 towns and villages in the District in 1881, 303 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, 493 between two and five hundred, 308 between five hundred and one thousand, 114 between one and two thousand, 30 between two and three thousand, 24 between three and five thousand, 9 between five and ten thousand, 1 between ten and fifteen thousand, 1 between fifteen and twenty thousand, and 2 between twenty and fifty thousand.

In the Sub-divisions of Dhárwár, Hubli, Gadag, and Bankápur, and in the State of Sawanúr, the population contains a considerable Musalmán element. Among the nomadic tribes, the chief are the Waddars, Lambánís, Gollárs, and Advichinchars. The Waddars move, with their wives and families, from place to place in search of work. They are generally employed on earthwork, quarrying, sinking wells, or making roads and reservoirs. The Lambánís also wander about in gangs. They correspond to the Banjáras, or gipsies, of Gujarát and Central India, and do a large carrying trade on pack-bullocks and ponies. The Gollárs and Advichinchars are a class of wandering jugglers, who live in the forest and pick up a precarious and often dishonest livelihood; but they are not thieves by profession.

The population of Dhárwár is, on the whole, prosperous. The soil is fertile, the climate favourable, and the people not wanting in energy. The cultivators have a good stock of cattle, especially in the eastern parts of the District. Towards the Western Gháts, cultivation is scantier, and the people less thriving.

There are three Christian Missions in the District. The chief one is subordinate to the Basle German Mission, with resident missionaries at Dhárwár, Hubli, and Gadag-Betigeri, and congregations at the villages of Unkal, Hebsúr, and Shagoti. The second mission is subordinate to the Roman Catholic Bishop of Bombay; its chief station is Dhárwár, and it has congregations at Hubli and Tumrikop. The third mission is subordinate to the Archbishop of Goa; excepting the town of Dhárwár, its congregational stations are situated beyond the District boundary.

Kánarese is the vernacular language of the District, though the Dhárwár dialect is not so pure as that spoken in Kánara itself. By many of the better classes Maráthí is understood; and Hindustání is known to a few.

The chief towns of the District are—(1) HUBLI, population (1881) 36,677; (2) DHARWAR, 27,191 (town 26,520, cantonment 671); (3) RANIBENNUR, 10,202; (4) GADAG, 17,001; (5) NARGUND, 7874; (6) NAWALGUND, 7810; (7) MULGUND, 5386; (8) SHAHABAJAR or BANKAPUR, 6037; (9) HAVERI, 5652; (10) NAREGAL, 6071; (11) HANGAL, 5272; (12) TUMINKATTI, 4622; (13) BYADGI, 4116; (14) MUNDARGI, 3826.

Formerly all the principal towns, and even villages, were defended by a fort within which the richest inhabitants lived in well-built houses; without the walls were the huts of the poorer and less influential classes. Though the fortifications have now been allowed to fall into decay, a marked distinction still exists between the town proper or *pét* and the houses within the fort. Villages in the western and southern parts of the District have in general a thriving appearance, arising from the common use of tiled roofs. In the northern and eastern parts, houses are, as a rule, flat-roofed, and there are few trees near the villages. The houses are chiefly constructed on massive woodwork frames, built in with mud bricks, the ends of which are triangular in shape. Formerly many of the villages were surrounded by low walls of mud and sun-dried bricks, as a protection against the attacks of thieves, but most of these walls are now falling into decay.

Exclusive of hamlets, there were, in 1881, 14 towns and 1271 inhabited State and alienated villages, giving an average of 0·29 villages to each square mile, and 687 inhabitants to each village. The total number of houses was returned at 206,419, of which 45,269 were unoccupied, showing an average of 45·5 houses per square mile, and of 5·47 persons per house.

Three annual fairs or religious meetings are held in the District—(1) at Hulgúr in Bankápur Sub-division, in February, in honour of a famous Musalmán saint; attendance of pilgrims about 3000; (2) at Yamnúr in Nawalgúnd Sub-division, in March, also in commemoration of a Muhammadan saint; attendance of pilgrims, about 26,000; (3) at Gudguddápur in Ránibennur Sub-division, in September, in honour of a Hindu deity, Malhár Martand; attendance of pilgrims, about 8700. Trade is carried on only to a very limited extent at these festivals. There are 21 other religious gatherings of less importance.

The staff of the village community consists of two classes, one connected with the Government, and the other useful to the community alone. The first class comprises the *pátel*, or head-man; the *kulkarni*, or accountant; *shetsandi*, or policeman; and *talwars*, *barkís*, and *mahárs*, the menial servants. In the second class are the *joshí*, or astrologer; the *kází* and *mullá*, the Musalmán priests; the *jangam*, or *aya;* the *sutár*, or carpenter; the *lohár*, or blacksmith; the *kumbhár*, or potter; the *sonár*, or goldsmith; the *hajjám*, or barber; the *vaidya*,

or doctor; the *dhor*, or manufacturer of leathern articles for farmers; the *dhobí*, or washerman; the *pújárí*, or worshipper; the *mathapati*, or procurer of milk and butter for strangers; and the *mahárs*, or sweepers. In large villages, the organization may be found complete; but in small villages, the *joshí*, *sonár*, *vaidya*, *dhobí*, and *hajjám*, do not generally exist. Besides the above, in some few villages in the Hángal, Karajgi, and Kod Sub-divisions, there is a class of village servants called *nir manégárs*, whose special duties are to keep the tank water-courses in repair, and let water on to the fields.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of land belonging to other jurisdictions situated within its limits, Dhárwár District contains a total area of 2,902,400 acres, of which 864,204 acres, or nearly 30 per cent., have been alienated. Of the remainder, 1,659,321 acres are assessed arable land, and 378,733 acres are unassessed waste. The total cultivated area in 1882–83 was 1,503,011 acres, including 1,409,175 acres under dry crops, 86,873 acres under rice, and 6963 acres irrigated for garden crops. The soil of the District may be divided into three classes, viz. red soil, black soil, and a rich brown loam. The red soil is a shallow gravelly deposit formed by the disintegration of hills and rocks. The black soil is the well-known *regar*, or cotton-soil, on which the value of Dhárwár as a cotton-producing District depends. It ordinarily varies in depth from 2 to 20 feet. The brown loam is found chiefly on the west of the District, once the site of large forests; it is supposed to be chiefly of vegetable origin, and is of little depth. The Government land is held under the Bombay Survey tenure, at a revenue fixed, in 1857–58, for a term of thirty years. The land alienated by the State is, as a rule, held at a fixed quit-rent. There are two chief crops in the year—the early or *kharíf*, and the late or *rabí* harvest. The early crops are sown in June, and harvested in October and November. The late crops, except cotton, are sown in October and reaped in February. Cotton is sown in August and picked in March. A field of black soil requires only one ploughing in the year, and is seldom manured. A field of red soil, on the other hand, is ploughed three or four times, and is generally manured. The entire stock of agricultural implements required by a single husbandman may be valued at from 10s. to £2.

The oxen are of three varieties—two of inferior breed, indigenous to the District, and the large and well-made animals imported from Mysore. These Mysore bullocks are much valued; an ordinary pair fetches about £15, and for a superior pair as much as £45, or even £200, is sometimes paid. The ponies of Dhárwár were once famous, but of late years the breed is said to have fallen off.

The agricultural stock in possession of the cultivators of Government or *khálsá* villages during 1881–82 numbered 89,205 ploughs, 37,376 carts, 224,170 bullocks, 111,352 buffaloes, 122,386 cows, 5162 horses,

174,528 sheep and goats, and 5633 asses. Of 1,507,942 acres, the total cultivated area in the same year—cereals occupied 756,034 acres, or 50·10 per cent.; pulses, 101,197 acres, or 6·70 per cent.; oil-seeds 70,426 acres, or 4·67 per cent.; fibres, including cotton, 359,210 acres, or 21·19 per cent.; sugar-cane, 3742 acres; tobacco, 1251 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 32,967 acres, or 2·20 per cent.: 184,776 acres were under grass. The current prices of the chief articles of food, per *maund* of 80 lbs., in the District in 1881-82, were, for wheat, 3s. 7½d.; for rice, from 6s. 9d. to 9s.; for *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), 2s. 10½d.; for *joár* (Holcus sorghum), 2s. 6d.; for pulses or *dal*, 5s. 7d.; for wheat flour, 5s. 2d.; for gram, 5s. 1d.; and for salt, 8s. 7½d.

Of the total just enumerated, 534,185 acres, or 21·06 per cent., were under cotton, the indigenous variety occupying 395,396, and Orleans cotton 138,789 acres. Several attempts had been made by Government to introduce the culture of New Orleans cotton, but up to 1842 without success. In that year, however, the results were most satisfactory. Both in quantity and quality the out-turn was better than the indigenous variety, and the cultivation of New Orleans cotton has since spread rapidly. Its superiority is now generally recognised, not only in Dhárwár, but in the neighbouring Districts. As American cotton cannot be properly ginned by the native process, it was found necessary to introduce new machinery. To ensure a sufficient supply of the best gins, they are imported from England and offered for sale at the Government factory at Dhárwár, while for their repair branch factories have been established at local centres of trade.

Natural Calamities.—From the earliest date of which historical record is available, the District appears to have suffered from droughts of more or less severity. Between 1787 and 1796 a succession of droughts, accompanied by swarms of locusts, occurred. This period of famine is said to have been at its height about 1791-92. The people were forced to feed on leaves and berries, and women and children were sold or deserted. No measures were taken by the Government of the day to relieve the sufferers. The next famine was in 1802-1803, occasioned by the immigration of people from the valley of the Godávari and the march of the Peshwá's army through the country. In 1832, from want of rain, prices ruled very high, but the distress cannot be said to have amounted to famine. Owing to successive bad seasons, famines occurred in the years 1866 and 1877, and it was found necessary to employ large bodies of people on works of public utility.

Trade, etc.—In no part of the Bombay Presidency has more been done of late years to improve communications than in Dhárwar. Thirty years ago, there were neither roads nor carts. In 1881-82, the

number of carts was returned at 37,376, and about 1000 miles of road were kept in sufficient repair to allow a spring carriage to be driven over them. The District is connected with the ports of Coompta, Kárwár, and Vingorla by excellent roads, the distance from the western sea being about 100 miles. On the east, a road runs to the railway station of Bellary, in the Madras Presidency. The distance of Bellary from the Dhárwár frontier is also about 100 miles. A line of railway is now under construction to pass through the District, from Bellary *viâ* Gadag and Hubli, to Marmagáo in Portuguese territory, with a branch to Belgáum, while the Southern Maráthá Railway, from Sholápur, passes through the north-eastern portion of the District *viâ* Bíjapur to Gadag.

No returns of the internal trade of the District are available. Cotton is the chief article of export, and European goods, chillies, cocoa-nuts, molasses, and betel-nuts are imported from Kánara and Mysore. The local trade in *joár* is also considerable.

The manufactures consist of cotton and silk cloth, and the usual household utensils and ornaments. Common silk and cotton cloth are woven to a considerable extent in all the large towns. Fabrics of delicate texture and tasteful design are occasionally produced. Fine cotton carpets are manufactured at Nawalgúnd, both for home consumption and for export to the neighbouring Districts. The wild aloe grows well, and the manufacture of matting from its fibre has been carried on at the jail with success. In the city of Dhárwár there is also a considerable manufacture of glass bangles. Blocks of blue and green glass in a rough state are imported from Bellary and re-melted in crucibles, made of a species of clay brought from Khánápur, in Belgáum. During eight months of the year (October to June) iron-smelting is carried on in small furnaces in parts of the District, but want of fuel prevents any extension of this industry.

The majority of the traders are local capitalists, a few representing firms in Bombay and other important places. Except a few Pársís in the town of Dhárwar, they are by caste generally Bráhmans or Lingáyats, a few being Muhammadans, Gújars, etc. Porters and other unskilled labourers earn from 4½d. to 6d. a day; agricultural labourers from 3d. to 4½d., bricklayers and carpenters from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 4½d. Female labourers earn about one-third less than males. Lads of from twelve to fifteen get about two-thirds less than full-grown men.

Administration.—The District is divided into 11 Sub-divisions, or *táluks*, and into 3 *petas* or larger fiscal units. The 11 Sub-divisions of the District are—DHARWAR, HUBLI, GADAG, NAWALGUND, BANKAPUR, RON, RANIBENNUR, KOD, HANGAL, KARAJGI, and KALGHATGI. The administration in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 5 Assistants, of whom 3 are covenanted civil servants. For the settlement of civil disputes there were, in 1881, 4 courts,

including the court of the District Judge. Thirty officers, including 6 Europeans, shared the administration of criminal justice. In the same year, the total strength of the District or regular police force was 733 officers and men. The total cost of maintaining this force was £12,154. These figures show one policeman to every 6·18 square miles as compared with the area, and 1 to every 1204 persons as compared with the population; the cost of maintenance was £2, 13s. 7d. per square mile, or 3d. per head of the population. There is 1 jail at Dhárwár town, in which 562 male and 109 female prisoners were confined in 1880. The District contains 51 post-offices and 3 telegraph offices, viz. at Dhárwár, Hubli, and Gadag-Betigeri.

In 1881–82, the re-settlement of the Dhárwár District was completed at a total cost of £44,030, resulting in a total increase of the land revenue to £266,540, the annual increase consequent on re-settlement being £45,489. The local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded, in 1881–82, a sum of £15,891. There are 11 municipalities in the District; their total receipts in 1881–82 amounted to £10,170, and their expenditure to £10,641. The incidence of municipal taxation varied from 10½d. to 3s. 1½d. per head. In the same year there were 377 schools in the District, or an average of 5 schools for every 15 villages, with an attendance of 27,113 pupils. In Dhárwár town there is 1 library, and 3 local newspapers are published.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is, for both natives and Europeans, about the healthiest in the Bombay Presidency. In December and January, dews are heavy and general. From February to the middle of April is the hot season; and from the latter date to the beginning of June, when the regular rainy reason sets in, showers are frequent. Except in November and December, when strong winds blow from the east, the prevailing winds are from the west, south-west, and south-east. The average maximum temperature for the hot months (March to May) is 93° F.; the maximum for the rainy season (June to October), 83°; the maximum for the cold season (November to February), 84° F. The average rainfall at Dhárwár town for a period of seven years ending 1881 was 32·89 inches. At Hubli the rainfall for the same period averaged 25·8 inches.

There are 3 dispensaries in the District, and a civil hospital at Dhárwár town. During 1881–82, 43,498 persons in all were treated, of whom 42,900 were out-door and 598 in-door patients. There is also a lunatic asylum at Dhárwár. The births registered in the District in 1881 numbered 33,315, or 37·73 per 1000 of population; the deaths in the same year numbered 20,492, or 23·30 per 1000; the average death-rate for the five years previous being 41·0. Number of persons vaccinated in 1881–82, 21,025. [For further information

regarding Dhárwár District, see *Records of the Government of Bombay* (New Series), *Papers regarding the Revision of the Settlement*, Nos. CXLV., CLV., CLVI., CLIX., CLX., CLXI., and CLXII. See also the *Bombay Census Report*, and the *Bombay Annual Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Dhárwár.—Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 425 square miles; contains 1 town and 127 villages. Population (1881) 111,137, namely, 55,524 males and 55,613 females. Hindus number 92,547; Muhammadans, 15,011; 'others,' 3579. The Sub-division contained in 1883, 1 civil and 10 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 70 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 382.

Dhárwár.—The chief town of Dhárwár District, situated in latitude 15° 27′ N., and longitude 75° 3′ 20″ E. Area, including the suburbs, 3 square miles. Population (1881) 27,191, including 671 in cantonments, thus classified — 19,709 Hindus, 6545 Muhammadans, 271 Jains, 618 Christians, 24 Pársís, and 24 'others.' The fort stands on undulating ground. Towards the west, low hills run down to the plains, forming the last spurs of the Western Gháts. The fort and the town are almost hidden from view on the east by trees and rising ground. The approach from the south is striking. The highest point is occupied by the Collector's office, from which a commanding view of the town, suburbs, and surrounding country is obtained. Below the office and adjacent to it is the temple of Ulvi-Basapa, and beyond, the hill of Máilargud, formerly considered the key to the fort of Dhárwár. The travellers' bungalow or rest-house is one mile west of the fort, and the cemetery is a little to the south-west. The church, about one mile to the south of the travellers' bungalow, belongs to the Basle German Mission. The cantonments lie to the north-west of the fort, about 2 miles distant. Beyond the town extensive plains of black soil stretch across to the hills of Nawalgund and Nargund on the east, and on the north-east to the famous hills of Yellama (a Hindu deity) and Parsagad. Towards the south-east, the hill of Mulgúnd appears at the distance of about 36 miles. There is no authentic evidence of the date when the fort was founded. A *purána* or legendary chronicle concerning the origin of the neighbouring temple of Someswar makes no mention of Dhárwár. According to local tradition, the fort was founded in 1403 by one Dhár Ráo, an officer in the Forest Department, under Ram Rájá, the Hindu King of Anigúndi. The Anigúndi kingdom was overthrown by Muhammad Adíl Sháh of Bijápur in 1568. In 1685, the fort was captured by the Mughal Emperor of Delhi; and in 1753, it fell into the hands of the Maráthás. In 1778, Dhárwár was taken from the Maráthás by Haidar Alí, the Muhammadan usurper of Mysore; and in 1791, it was retaken by a British force auxiliary to the Maráthás under Parshurám Bháo. On the final over-

throw of the Peshwá, in 1818, Dhárwár, with the other possessions of that potentate, fell to the disposal of the British Government. The fort is described as being well planned and naturally strong. Previous to 1857 it was kept in repair. Since then it has been breached; and, like all other forts in the District, it is now fast falling into ruins. In 1837, Dhárwár was the scene of violent feuds between the Bráhmans and Lingáyats, compelling the interference of the British Government.

The town, which is very straggling, is made up of 7 quarters, or *maháls*. There are few good houses with upper storeys. A market is held every Tuesday. The only monument of historical interest is that erected in memory of the Collector, Mr. St. John Thackeray, and the sub-Collector, Mr. J. C. Munro, who were killed at the taking of Kittúr in 1824. About a mile and a half south of Dhárwár is a hill called the Mailargad; on its summit stands a small square stone temple, built after the Jain fashion, and facing the east. The columns and beams are of massive stone, and the roof of the same material is handsomely carved. On one of the columns is an inscription in Persian, recording that the temple was converted into a mosque in 1680 by the deputy of the King of Bijápur. The only prosperous classes of the population are the Bráhmans and Lingáyats. The influential Bráhmans are generally public officers, *vakíls* (advocates), *zamíndárs* (landowners), and *saukárs* (bankers and money-lenders). The Lingáyats are, as a rule, traders, who almost monopolize the export of cotton, timber, and grain. Some of the Musalmáns are also wealthy merchants. A few Pársís and Márwárís, who have recently settled in the town, deal chiefly in European goods. The principal articles of export are cotton and rice; the imports comprise English piece-goods, chillies, cocoa-nut, molasses, dates, betel-nut, groceries, indigo, lead, zinc, and wrought and unwrought copper and brass. There are no manufacturing industries of any importance; but in the jail, carpets, table-linen, cloths, and cane articles,—all of superior quality,—are made by the prisoners. In 1882-83, the municipal income amounted to £2509, and the expenditure to £2297; the incidence of municipal taxation being 1s. 5d. per head. The water-supply is drawn from two reservoirs. There are also several wells in the town, but with one or two exceptions they are not used for drinking purposes, the water being brackish. The native quarter was formerly unhealthy; but since the introduction of the Municipal Act, some attention has been paid to drainage and sanitary requirements.

Dhasán.—River of Central India, rising in Bhopál State, in latitude 23° 30′ N., and longitude 78° 32′ E., a few miles north of Sírmau, at an elevation of 2000 feet. After a course of 10 or 12 miles, it enters Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; through which it flows for 60 miles,

and then runs along the southern boundary of Lalitpur District, North-Western Provinces; finally, after a course of 220 miles, falling into the BETWA. On the road between Ságar (Saugor) and Ráhatgarh, the Dhasán is crossed by a stone bridge.

Dhaulágirí (*Dewálágiri*).—Mountain in the State of Nepál. Latitude 29° 11′ N., longitude 82° 59′ E. One of the loftiest peaks of the Himálayas; height, 26,826 feet above sea-level.

Dhauleshvaram.—Town in Godávari District, Madras Presidency. —*See* DOWLAISHVARAM.

Dhaurahra.—*Parganá* of Nighásan *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the Kauriála, on the east by the Daháwar, and on the south by the Chauka rivers; the western boundary is Nighásan *parganá*. In early times, prior to the Muhammadan conquest of Kanauj, Dhaurahra was the freehold property of Alha and Udal, the famous generals of Mahoba. It then formed a part of Garh Kilá Nawá, which was settled and visited by Firoz Sháh, and was probably owned by Pásis, whose Rájá lived at Dhaurahra. The Bisens held this tract during the decline of the Mughal power; but they were displaced by the Chauhán Jángres, who now own it. First constituted a *parganá* by Nawáb Safdár Jang. It consists of alluvial deposits from the Kauriála and Chauka rivers, and is annually inundated. The inhabitants suffer much from fever, and cultivation is very backward. Soil principally loam and clay, rather sandy towards the Chauka. Area, 261 square miles, of which 145 are cultivated and 72 cultivable. The 117 villages which the *parganá* comprises are held in *tálukdárí* tenure by 18 proprietors. Population (1881) 82,567, namely, Hindus, 74,510, and Muhammadans, 8057. Land revenue, £8239. The roads consist merely of rough bridle-paths, crossing the rivers by ferries. Communication principally by the Kauriála, Daháwar, and Chauka rivers; by means of which, during ten months of the year, a brisk trade is carried on in grain and oil-seeds.

Dhaurahra.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; 3 miles west of the Chauka river, 80 miles north of Lucknow, and 73 miles east of Sháhjahánpur. Lat. 28° N., long. 81° 9′ E. Population (1881) 5767, namely, Hindus, 4023; and Muhammadans, 1744. Area of town site, 163 acres. Constituted a municipality under the provisions of Act XV. of 1873. Town police force consisting of 1 sub-inspector, 3 head-constables, and 12 constables. During the Mutiny of 1857, the fugitives from Sháhjahánpur and Muhamdi, escaping towards Lucknow, sought the protection of the Dhaurahra Rájá; but he, on pressure from the rebel leaders, gave them up to their enemies. For this he was afterwards tried and hanged, and his estates confiscated.

Dhaurahra.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; 4 miles from the Gogra river, and 20 miles from Faizábád town on the road to

Lucknow. Population (1881) 3168, namely, 3108 Hindus and 60 Muhammadans. It contains neither temple, mosque, nor school; but a handsome gateway, said to have been built by a king of Oudh, Asaf-ud-daulá, stands just outside the town. On the opposite side of Dhaurahra is an ancient Hindu shrine, shaded by a magnificent grove of tamarind trees. A Hindu legend relates that Mahádeo once lived here, his body being buried in the earth. A party of religious mendicants on their way to Ajodhya conceived the idea of digging out the deity and exhibiting him for gain. As they dug, however, his head sank into the earth, and the party fled in horror. To commemorate the miracle, a dome, surrounded by a masonry platform and a wall, was constructed over the spot by two devout merchants. The place is now almost in ruins.

Dhaura-Kunjara.—Petty chiefship under the Indore Agency, Central India. A remuneration of £8 is granted to the *thákur* or chief for protection of the roads between Simrol Ghát and Sigwár.

Dhenkánal.—Tributary State of Orissa, Bengal. Lat. 20° 31′ to 21° 11′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 3′ to 86° 5′ E.; area, 1463 square miles; population (1881) 208,316. Bounded on the north by Pál Lahára and Keunjhar, on the east by Cuttack District and Athgarh, on the south by Tigariá and Hindol, and on the west by Tálcher and Pál Lahára, the Bráhmaní forming the boundary for a considerable distance. This river runs from west to east, through a richly-cultivated valley, affording a waterway for trade. Cultivable waste land abounds. Iron is plentifully found, but is only worked on a small scale. A petty trade in cochineal is also carried on. Chief village, also the residence of the Rájá, Dhenkánal, situated in lat. 20° 39′ 45″ N., long. 85° 38′ 16″ E. Weekly markets, for the sale of country produce, are held at Hodipur and Sadáipur villages. Population (1881) 208,316, namely, Hindus, 128,358; Muhammadans, 535; Christians, 2; Buddhists, 48; aboriginal tribes (the most numerous being the Savars), 79,347; and 'others,' 26. Estimated annual revenue, £7900; tribute payable to Government, £509; militia, 44 men; regular police, 41; rural police, 742. Dhenkánal is the best organized and most prosperous of the Orissa Tributary States. The late chief received the title of Mahárájá in 1869, in recognition of his moderation and justice towards his people, and of his liberality in the Orissa famine of 1866. The present chief being a minor, the State is now (1883) under the direct management of Government.

Dheri Shahán (or *Sháh Dheri*).—Village in Ráwal Pindi *tahsíl*, Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab. Lat. 33° 17′ N., and long. 72° 49′ 15″ E. Identified by General Cunningham with the ancient city of Taxila. The existing remains extend over an area of 6 square miles, and rank as the most interesting and extensive, and the best preserved memorials

of antiquity in the whole Punjab Province. The number and size of the *stupas* and monasteries render them worthy of the greatest attention. The earliest inhabitants of the surrounding region appear to have been the Takkas, who originally held all the Sind Ságar Doáb; and from their name General Cunningham derives that of Taxila or Takshasila, which Arrian describes as 'a large and wealthy city, the most populous between the Indus and the Hydaspes' (or Jehlam). The city stood a few miles to the north of the Margala Pass, where several mounds still mark the sites of its principal buildings. Alexander rested his army at this point for three days, and was royally entertained by the reigning sovereign. The Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, Fa Hian, visited Taxila, as a place of peculiar sanctity, about 400 A.D. Again, in 630 and 643, his countryman and co-religionist, Hwen Thsang, also made it a halting-place while on his pilgrimage, but found the seat of government removed to Kashmír. The ruins of Taxila consist of six separate portions. The mound of Bír, close to the modern rock-seated village of Dheri Shahán, abound in fragments of brick and pottery, and offers a rich mine of coins and gems for the antiquary. Hatiál, a fortified spur of the Margala range, probably formed the ancient citadel; it is enclosed by a ruined wall, and crowned by a large bastion or tower. Sír-Kap presents the appearance of a supplementary fortress, united with the citadel by a wall of circumvallation. Kacha-Kot possibly gave shelter to the elephants and cattle during a siege. Bábar-Khána contains the remains of a *stupa*, which General Cunningham identifies with that of Asoka, mentioned by Hwen Thsang. Besides all these massive works, a wide expanse, covered by monasteries or other religious buildings, stretches on every side from the central city to a considerable distance.

Dhi-Dharamrai. — Petty chiefship under the Bhíl (Bheel) or Bhopáwar Agency of Central India. The population is entirely Bhíl.

Dhobá (*Dhobá-Dhobini*). — Mountain peak in the Pratápgiri or Chinna Kimedi estate, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 20° N., longitude 84° 23′ E. It forms part of the Eastern Ghát range, 8 miles distant from Dimrigiri. Height, 4166 feet above the sea. A station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India.

Dhobá-khál.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam; on the Someswarí river, near which a fine outcrop of the coal strata was discovered in 1873 by the officers of the Survey. Lat. 25° 28′ N., long. 90° 46′ E.

Dhodar Alí.—One of the most important of the raised roads or embankments constructed in Assam by forced labour during the rule of the Aham dynasty. It runs parallel to the Brahmaputra through the entire length of Sibságar District, for a distance of 117½ miles, and is under the management of the District Road Committee. It joins

the Assam Trunk Road at the Dhaneswarí river in the Golághát Sub-division.

Dhola.—Petty State in Gohelwár *pranth* or division, Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £150, of which £32, 10s. is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda and £5, 18s. to Junágarh.

Dholarwa.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue, £200 per annum, of which £10, 6s. is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda and £2, 6s. to Junágarh.

Dholbájá.—Large village in Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 16′ N., long. 87° 19′ 21″ E. Situated on the Matiyárí road, 40 miles distant from Purniah town, and 16 miles from Basantpur Primary school.

Dholera.—Seaport in the Dhandhúka Sub-division, Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency; 62 miles south-west of Ahmadábád. One of the chief cotton-marts in the Gulf of Cambay. Latitude 22° 14′ 45″ N., and longitude 72° 15′ 25″ E. Population (1881) 10,301, namely, 7266 Hindus, 1289 Muhammadans, 1740 Jains, 4 Christians, and 2 Pársís. Situated in the swampy tract extending along the west of the Gulf of Cambay, within the limits of the Peninsula of Káthiáwár. Though called a port, the town of Dholera lies about 12 miles from the sea. The Bhádar or Dholera creek on which it stands is said to have been, a century ago, open for boats up to Dholera; but for the last fifty years the creek has silted up and trade passes through two ports—Khun, about 5 miles lower down on the same creek, and Bávliári, on an inlet of the sea about 16 miles south. The space between the town and the port was traversed by a tramway constructed by a company of native speculators at a cost of £5000, but it has ceased to run. There is a lighthouse at the entrance to the creek. Post-office, telegraph office, 3 Government schools, police station, and dispensary. Dholera has given the trade name to a quality of cotton well known in the European market: during the American War (1862–65) it was the chief cotton port in Gujarát.

Dholka.—Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by Sánand; on the east by Kaira District and Cambay; on the south by Dhandhúka; and on the west by Káthiáwár. Area, 665 square miles; contains 1 town and 117 villages. Population (1881) 111,192, namely, 56,485 males and 54,707 females. Hindus number 98,080; Muhammadans, 11,284; 'others,' 1828. The Sub-division is a plain sloping south-west to the little Rann. In the east along the Sábarmati the fields are hedged and the land is thickly planted with fruit-trees. The south-west is a bleak country exposed to the biting winds of the cold season. The only river is the Sábarmati. In 1877

there were 2534 wells, 132 water lifts, and 725 ponds. Average rainfall, 30 inches. In the year of the Bombay thirty years' settlement (1856-57), there were 9763 holdings with an average acreage of 12 acres, paying an average rental of £1, 0s. 9d. Agricultural stock in 1877—horned cattle, 47,839; horses, 1068; sheep and goats, 12,181; camels, 79; ploughs, 10,532; carts, 4358. In 1878, the total area of cultivated land was 222,141 acres, of which 27 per cent. were fallow or under grass. Cereals occupied 136,891 acres out of the 162,714 under actual cultivation; wheat occupied 91,638 acres; *joár*, 29,889; cotton, 14,638. In 1884, the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations, 3; regular police, 102 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 334. Land revenue (1883), £29,986.

Dholka.—Chief town of the Dholka Sub-division, Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency; 22 miles south-west of Ahmadábád. Latitude 22° 43′ 30″ N., longitude 72° 28′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 17,716, namely, 11,880 Hindus, 5658 Muhammadans, 126 Jains, and 9 Pársís. Municipal revenue (1881-82), £992; rate of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head. Dholka is situated amidst ruined palaces, mosques, mausoleums, and spacious tanks, embanked and lined with masonry. Though not regularly fortified, it is surrounded by a wall of mud 4 miles in circumference. Probably one of the oldest towns in Gujarát. Dholka lies on the river Sábarmati, on the chief land-route between Gujarát proper and Káthiáwár. It is supposed, in the early Hindu period, to have been the resting-place of the Pandyás, of Prince Kanaksen of the Solar race, of Minal Devi, the mother of Sidhi Raj of Anhilwáda (1094-1143), and of Vír Dhaval, the founder of the Vághela dynasty (13th century). During the Muhammadan period, Dholka was the residence of a local governor from Delhi, and it still contains the remains of many fine Musalmán buildings. It was taken by the Maráthás in 1736; came into the Gáekwár's hands in 1757; and was eventually ceded to the British in 1804. The greater part of the inhabitants are *Kasbátis* ('townsmen'), the descendants of the soldiers of fortune who came with the Vághelas when driven from Anhilwáda by the Khilji Alá-ud-dín in 1297. The chief industry is the weaving of women's robes, *sáris*, the best of their kind in Ahmadábád District. There are 5 schools, sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

Dholpur.—Native State in Rájputána, Central India, under the political superintendence of the Dholpur Agency. Lies between 26° 22′ and 26° 57′ N. latitude, and between 77° 16′ and 78° 19′ E. longitude; area, 1200 square miles. It extends from north-east to south-west for a length of 72 miles, with an average breadth of 16 miles. Dholpur is bounded on the north by the British District of Agra, from which it is for the most part divided by the Bánganga river;

on the south by the river Chambal, which separates it from the State of Gwalior; on the west by the States of Karaulí (Kerowlee) and Bhartpur (Bhurtpore). Chief town, DHOLPUR.

Physical Aspects.—The Chambal flows from south-west to north-east for over 100 miles through Dholpur territory. During the dry weather it is a sluggish stream 300 yards wide, and lies 170 feet below the level of the surrounding country. In the rains it rises generally about 70 feet above its summer level; its breadth is then increased by more than 1000 yards, and it runs at the rate of 5½ miles an hour. It is bordered everywhere by a labyrinth of ravines, some of which are 90 feet deep, and extend to a distance of from 2 to 4 miles from the river's bank. The Chambal is unnavigable on account of its rapid changes of level. Boats ply at 16 *ghâts* or crossings between the Dholpur and Gwalior banks. The most important crossing is at Rájghát, 3 miles south of the town of Dholpur, on the high road between Agra and Bombay. A bridge of boats is kept up between the 1st November and the 15th June, and a large ferry-boat plies during the rest of the year. No tributaries fall into the Chambal during its course through Dholpur territory. The Bánganga or Utangan river, rising in the hills near Bairat in Jaipur, runs for about 40 miles between the northern boundary of Dholpur and the District of Agra; its bed is about 40 feet below the surrounding country, and in the rains it is liable to floods, with a rise of from 17 to 20 feet. The other rivers are the Parbatí, which rises in Karaulí, and, traversing Dholpur in a north-easterly direction, falls into the Bánganga; and its two tributaries, the Merka and Merki. These three streams dry up in the hot season, leaving only occasional pools where the channels are deep. The general nature of the soil being a friable alluvium overlying a stratum of stiff yellow clay, the beds of all the rivers in Dholpur are considerably below the general level of the country, and all their banks are more or less cut up and fringed with ravines.

A ridge of red sandstone, varying in breadth from 2 to 14 miles, with an elevation of from 560 to 1074 feet above sea-level, runs for over 60 miles through the State in the direction of its greatest length. It affords a valuable stone for building purposes, fine grained and easily worked in the quarries; it hardens by exposure to the weather, and does not deteriorate by lamination. The railway bridge over the Chambal is built entirely of this stone. *Kankar*, or nodular limestone, is found in many places in the ravines leading to the rivers; and a bed of excellent limestone occurs on the banks of the Chambal, near the Agra and Bombay road, within 2½ miles of the town of Dholpur. No coal or metallic ores are found in the State. The soil is everywhere poor on the sandstone ridge, and in its immediate vicinity; but it becomes richer and more fertile in proportion to the increase of

distance from the ridge. In the north and north-west, the soil is for the most part a mixture of sand and clay, known as *domat*, which is as productive as the best land in Agra District. To the north-east, in the Rájákhera *parganá*, an area of about 90 square miles is covered with black soil, similar to that of Bundelkhand, yielding excellent cold weather crops. Dholpur is a grain-producing country, and is not remarkable for any special manufactures. The chief crops raised are *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), *moth*, and *joár* (Holcus sorghum); and in the cold season a considerable quantity of wheat and barley. Cotton and rice are also produced. Irrigation is carried on by means of tanks and wells, the average depth at which water is found being 25 feet. Of the total area of the State (768,000 acres), about 50 per cent. is under cultivation. About 43·3 per cent. of the country is barren, and about 3 per cent. is occupied by villages, rivers, tanks, etc.

The land tenures are in most respects similar to those of the North-Western Provinces, with this important exception, that in Dholpur, as under other Native Governments, the chief is the absolute owner of the land. The *zamíndárs*, or *lambardárs* as they are more usually termed, are persons (generally descendants of the original founders of the village) who contract with the State for the payment of the revenue demand, which they collect from the cultivators. So long as they observe their contract, they are considered as owners of the land actually cultivated by them and by their tenants, and also of uncultivated land sufficient for the grazing of the village cattle. The remainder of the untilled land, with its produce, groves, tanks, etc., belongs to the State.

Population.—A rough Census of the population taken during the survey of the State in 1876, showed a total of 227,976 inhabitants. The regular general Census of 1881, five years later, disclosed a population of 249,657 persons, dwelling in 4 towns and 534 villages, and occupying 48,429 houses; average density of inhabitants per square mile, 208·04; number of towns and villages per square mile, ·45; number of houses per square mile, 40·35; number of persons per house, 5·15. Total males, 138,342; females, 111,315. Classified according to religion, there were returned 229,050 Hindus, 18,097 Muhammadans, 27 Christians, and 2483 Jains. Among the Muhammadans were included 9680 Shaikhs, 970 Sayyids, 229 Mughals, 5585 Patháns, and 1633 'others.' The most numerous classes are at two extremes of the Hindu social scale—Bráhmans, 44,347, and Chamárs, 35,075. Rájputs number 23,766; Gújars, 19,482; Kachhís, 2510; Minás, 11,924; Játs, 3932; Baniyás, 13,664; Ahírs, 768; and other Hindu castes, 76,065. The Muhammadans live for the most part in the towns of Bári and Dholpur. The Gújars, the oldest known inhabitants of the country, are generally found along the banks of the Chambal, in the Dáng or

ravine *táluks* of Bárí and Gird; they are great cattle-lifters. The Minás, believed to have come originally from Jaipur (Jeypore), are among the best cultivators of the State. The people generally are engaged in tilling the land, and the whole country is agricultural. The dominant religion is Hinduism of the Vishnuvite sect. Four towns have a population of over 5000, namely, Dholpur (15,833), Puraní Chaoní (5246), Bárí (11,547), and Rájákhera (6247). In 1882, 8 schools, with a total daily attendance of 447 pupils, were maintained in the larger towns of the State. In one of these, English, Persian, and Hindi are taught; in three, Persian and Hindí; and in four, Hindí alone.

The Trunk Road from Agra to Bombay runs through the State from north to south, passing by Dholpur town. There are no other metalled roads but a few fair-weather tracks—one leading from Dholpur by Rájákhera to Agra; a second with a main direction west from Dholpur to Bárí, and thence to Bhartpur on one side and Karaulí on the other; a third having a main direction to the north-east from Dholpur to Kolárí and Baserí, and thence to Karaulí.

The Sindhia State Railway, between Agra and Gwalior, runs through the State in a direction generally parallel to the Grand Trunk Road. It crosses the Chambal by a bridge of 12 spans of 200 feet each, about 112 feet above the river bed.

Administration.—The land revenue of Dholpur in 1882–83 amounted to £71,400. Customs and other sources of revenue brought up the gross total to £110,572. The expenditure in the same year was £91,001. The land, which had not been surveyed since 1570, in the reign of Akbar, was re-surveyed in 1875–76, preparatory to a re-settlement which was conducted on a basis similar to that of the North-Western Provinces, but simpler in its details. For fiscal purposes the State is divided into the following five sub-divisions or *tahsíls*—namely, Gird Dholpur, of 5 *táluks;* Bárí, of 7 *táluks;* Baserí, of 2 *táluks;* Kolárí, of 3 *táluks;* and Rájákhera, of 2 *táluks.* Fifty-seven villages in the State belong to *jágírdárs*, who in return are expected themselves to serve in the State army, and to furnish a certain number of horsemen for the State service; 44 villages have been set apart principally as religious grants; and the State exercises the right of interference in cases of oppression or exaction on the part of the *jágírdárs.* The Mahárájá Ráná is assisted by a council of regency consisting of three members. The Dholpur jail is managed on a system similar to that in British jails. It contains an average of 130 prisoners. The police and judicial administration is under the Názim, or chief civil and criminal judge, who tries all cases; but those involving a punishment heavier than three years' imprisonment must be referred for confirmation to the Council of Management. In

1882-83, 1978 criminal cases were disposed of; and 348 civil suits were heard. There are 11 police stations and 44 outposts, with a watchman in each village. A small forest department is employed in each *parganá* under the *tahsíldár*. The arrangements for the collection of customs are co-ordinate with those for land revenue.

The climate is generally healthy. The hot winds blow steadily and strongly during the months of April, May, and June. The annual rainfall averages from 27 to 30 inches. There are three State dispensaries, at which 20,561 cases were treated in 1882; 7895 persons were vaccinated during the same period.

History.—According to local tradition, Dholpur derives its name from Rájá Dholan Deo Tonwár (of the ancient Tomar or Tonwár dynasty of Delhi), who about 1004 A.D. held the country between the Chambal and Bánganga rivers. Previous to that time it is supposed to have formed part of the kingdom of Kanauj. Very little is authentically known of the country until the Musalmán conquests, with which it became early incorporated. Dholpur for a time resisted Bábar, but under Akbar the State formed part of the Muhammadan Subah, or province, of Agra. In 1658, the sons of Sháhjahán, Aurangzeb and Murád, fought for empire at Ranka Chabutra, three miles east of Dholpur, Aurangzeb proving victorious. After the death of Aurangzeb, Dholpur was again the scene of a struggle for empire. Within its territory the sons of Aurangzeb, Azam and Muazzam, decided their pretensions in the field, and the former prince was slain; but Rájá Kalián Singh Bhadauriyá, taking advantage of the troubles which beset the new emperor on every side, obtained possession of the Dholpur territory. The Bhadauriyás remained undisturbed till 1761, when the Ját Rájá, Súraj Mall of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore), after the battle of Pánipat, seized upon Agra and overran the country. During the succeeding forty-five years, Dholpur changed masters no less than five times. In 1775, it shared the fate of the rest of the Bhartpur possessions, which were seized by Mirzá Najaf Khán. On the death of Mirza in 1782, it fell into the hands of Sindhia. At the outbreak of the Maráthá war in 1803, it was occupied by the British, by whom, in accordance with the treaty of Sarji Anjengáon, it was, at the end of the year, ceded to the Gwalior chief. In 1805, under fresh arrangements with Daulat Ráo Sindhia, it was resumed by the English, who in 1806, finally uniting the territories of Dholpur, Bárí, and Rájákhera with Sir Muttra into one State, made it over to Mahárána Kirat Singh (the ancestor of the present chief of Dholpur) in exchange for his territory of Gohad, which was given up to Sindhia. The reigning family of Dholpur are Játs of the Bamráolia family, belonging to the Deswáli tribe, which claims a very ancient lineage. The ancestor of the family is said to have been in possession of lands at Bamráoli near

Agra in 1195, from which circumstance they have taken their name. They joined the side of the Rájputs against the Musalmáns, and received a grant of the territory of Gohad, whence the title of Ráná was assumed. This is said to have occurred in 1505 A.D. They appear to have become connected with Bájí Ráo Peshwá; and in 1761, when the Maráthás had been completely defeated at Pánipat, Ráná Bhím Singh seized the fort of Gwalior. In 1777, Sindhia besieged and took the fortress. In order to form a barrier against the Maráthás, Warren Hastings in 1779 made a treaty with the Ráná, and the joint forces of the English and the Ráná retook Gwalior. In 1781, a treaty with Sindhia stipulated for the integrity of the Gohad territories; but after the treaty of Salbye, the Mahárání was abandoned, on the ground that he had been guilty of treachery, and Sindhia re-possessed himself of Gohad and Gwalior. The Ráná went into exile, until Lord Wellesley's policy against the Maráthás again brought him forward, when the territories of Dholpur were made over to Kirat Singh in 1804. But in 1805, Lord Cornwallis re-transferred Gohad and Gwalior to Sindhia, leaving to the Ráná the lands which he still possesses. Kirat Singh's successor, Bhagwant Singh, showed a loyal attachment to the British Government, especially during the Mutiny of 1857, for which he received the insignia of K.C.S.I. He died in 1873, and was succeeded by his grandson, the present chief, Mahárájá Ráná Nihál Singh, born in 1863, whose mother is a sister of the Rájá of Patiála. The Ráná of Dholpur is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The military force of the State consists of 600 cavalry, 3650 infantry, 32 field guns, and 100 gunners.

Dholpur.—The capital of the Native State of Dholpur, Rájputána, Central India, situated in lat. 26° 42′ N., and long. 77° 56′ E., on the Grand Trunk Road between Agra and Bombay, about 34 miles south of Agra and 37 miles north-west of Gwalior. In 1881 it contained a population of 15,833, namely, 10,587 Hindus, 5215 Muhammadans, and 31 'others.' Three miles south of Dholpur, the Chambal river is crossed at Rájghát by a bridge of boats between the 1st November and the 15th June, and by ferry during the rest of the year. The Sindhia State Railway between Agra and Gwalior passes through Dholpur, and the railway bridge across the Chambal is within a distance of 5 miles. The original town is supposed to have been built by Rájá Dholan Deo in the beginning of the 11th century, to the south of the present site. The Emperor Bábar mentions Dholpur, and states that it surrendered to him in 1526. His son, Prince Humáyún, is said to have moved the site farther to the north, in order to avoid the encroachments of the Chambal river. An enclosed, and to some extent fortified, *sarái* was built in the reign of Akbar. The new portion of the town and the palace of the Ráná were built by Ráná Kirat Singh, the great-grandfather of the present chief. A fair is held

here for fifteen days in the latter part of October, when a large traffic in merchandise, cattle, and horses is carried on. Goods are brought from Delhi, Agra, Cawnpur, and Lucknow. Religious fairs for the purpose of bathing are held at Machkúnd, a lake 3 miles to the west of Dholpur, in May, and again at the beginning of September. The lake, which covers an area of 41 acres, lies in a natural hollow of great depth; it is filled in the rains by the drainage of the surrounding country, and maintained by the convergence of springs having their sources in the sandstone hills by which it is surrounded. The lake has no less than 114 temples on its banks, none of an earlier date than the 15th century. Another large fair is held at Salpau, 14 miles north-west of Dholpur, at the end of February.

Dhol Samudrá.—Marsh in Farídpur District, Bengal; situated to the south-east of Farídpur town. During the rains it expands into a lake of about 8 miles in circumference, the water extending close to the houses of the town. In the cold weather it gradually dwindles, and in the hot season is only a mile or two in circumference.

Dhonegáon.—Town in Buldána District, Berár. Population (1881) 4259.

Dhoráji.—Fortified town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 21° 45′ N., longitude 70° 37′ E.; 43 miles south-west of Rájkot, and 52 miles east of Porbandar. Population (1881) 16,121, namely, 6991 Hindus, 8210 Muhammadans, and 920 Jains.

Dhotria-Baisola. — Petty chiefship of Dhár Native State, under the Bhíl or Bhopáwar Agency, Central India. Under a settlement made in 1818 the *thákur* or chief engaged to pay annually £250 to the State of Dhár. Population entirely Bhil. The chief holds 9 villages.

Dhráfa. — Petty State of the Halál *plánt* or division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 24 villages, with 9 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £6000; tribute is paid of £370, 12s. to the British Government, and of £116, 10s. to the State of Junágarh.

Dhrángadrá.—Native State under the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. It lies between 22° 30′ and 23° N. latitude, and between 71° and 71° 49′ E. longitude, and contains an area of 1142 square miles, with 129 villages. Population (1881) 99,686, namely, 88,665 Hindus, 5686 Muhammadans, and 5335 'others.' An uneven tract intersected by small streams, and consisting of hilly and rocky ground, where stone is quarried. With the exception of a small extent of rich black loam, the soil is of inferior quality. The climate is hot, but healthy. The principal crops are cotton and the common varieties of grain. The manufactures are salt, copper and brass vessels, stone

handmills, cloth, and pottery. There are no made roads, but the country tracks permit the passage of pack-bullocks. DHOLERA, about 70 miles to the south-east of Dhrángadrá town, in Ahmadábád District, is the nearest port. There are 31 schools, with 1400 pupils. The chief of Dhrángadrá entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. Among the small chieftains of Káthiáwár, he holds the position of a ruler of a first-class State, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. The chief bears the title of Rájá Sáhib. He is a Hindu, a Rájput by caste, and of the Jhálá stock. He pays to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh an annual tribute of £4467, 14s., and maintains a military force of 2150 men. He holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. He has power of life and death over his own subjects. The Jhálá family is of great antiquity, and is said to have entered Káthiáwár from the north, and to have established itself first at Pátri, in the Viramgám Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, whence it moved to Halwad, and finally to its present seat. The greater part of this territory would seem to have been annexed at one time by the Muhammadan rulers of Guzerát. Subsequently, during the reign of the Emperor Aurangzeb (1658–1707), the Sub-division of Halwad, then called Muhammadnagar, was restored to the Jhálá family. The petty States of Limri, Wadhwán, Chúra, Sáyla, and Thán-Lakhtár in Káthiáwár are offshoots from Dhrángadrá; and the house of Wánkáner claims to be descended from an elder branch of the same race. Transit dues are not levied in the State. The gross revenue in 1882 was £40,000.

Dhrángadrá.—Chief town of the Native State of Dhrángadrá, Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 59′ 10″ N., long. 71° 31′ E.; 75 miles west of Ahmadábád. Population (1881) 12,304, namely, 8914 Hindus, 1473 Muhammadans, 1913 Jains, and 4 Christians. The town is fortified.

Dhrol.—Native State under the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Province of Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; situated between 22° 14′ and 22° 42′ N. lat., and between 70° 24′ and 70° 45′ E. long. It lies inland, and contains 1 town and 64 villages. Area, 400 square miles. Population (1881) 21,777, namely, 18,501 Hindus, 2644 Muhammadans, and 631 'others.' The country is for the most part undulating and rocky. The soil is generally light, and irrigated by water drawn from wells and rivers by means of leather bags. The climate, though hot in the months of April, May, and October, is generally healthy. The crops are sugar-cane and the ordinary varieties of grain. Coarse cotton cloth is manufactured to a small extent. There are no made roads, but the country tracks permit the passage of carts. The produce is chiefly exported from Jodiya, a town on the coast. The gross revenue is estimated at £11,700. There are 4 schools, with 270 pupils. Dhrol

ranks as a second-class State among the States in Káthiáwár. The ruler entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The chief is a Rájput by caste, of the Járejá branch, with the title of Thákur Sáhib. He holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. He pays a tribute of £1023, 2s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the Nawáb of Junágarh, and maintains a military force of 118 men. He has power of life and death over his own subjects. No transit duties are levied in the State.

Dhrol.—Chief town of the Native State of Dhrol, Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency; situated in latitude 12° 34′ N., and longitude 70° 30′ E. Population (1881) 4613, being 3109 Hindus, 1133 Muhammadans, and 371 Jains.

Dhubrí.—Sub-division of Goálpárá District, comprising the two police circles of Dhubrí and Sukchar. Total population (1881) 282,010, namely, Hindus, 191,163; Muhammadans, 89,357; and 'others,' 1490. Number of villages, 662; number of houses, 50,617.

Dhubrí.—Chief town of Goálpárá District, Assam, the head-quarters having been removed from Goálpárá town in 1879; situated in lat. 26° 2′ N., and long. 90° 2′ E., on the right bank of the Brahmaputra, at the point where that river leaves the valley of Assam, and turns south to enter the plains of Bengal. Population (1881) 2893. Dhubrí is also the head-quarters of the Superintendent of Telegraphs, Assam Division; and as the terminus of the emigration road running through Northern Bengal, and a stopping-place for Assam steamers, the town is rapidly rising in importance. Dhubrí is now (1882) the terminus of a service conducted by the Northern Bengal State Railway; and steamers ply daily in connection with that railway, between Dhubrí and Kurígrám on the Dharla river in the rainy season, and with Jatrapur on the Brahmaputra in the cold weather. A steam ferry crosses the Brahmaputra to Fakírganj town.

Dhude.—Petty State in the Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Dhulápra.—*Jhíl*, or natural reservoir in Sahάranpur District, North-Western Provinces, 7 miles west of Saháranpur town. In connection with the drainage arrangements of the Eastern Jumna Canal, a cut has been made from this *jhíl* for purposes of reclamation; but up to the end of 1882, only 500 *bighás* had been reclaimed.

Dhulátia.—A guaranteed Thákurate or petty chiefship of the Western Málwa Agency, Central India. Receives £40 per annum from Sindhia, and £60 from Holkar as *tankha* on Malídpur and Depálpur.

Dhúlia.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 759 square miles. Population (1881) 78,137; average density, 103 persons per square mile. Since the Census of 1872, the population

has increased by 9814. Number of villages, 152, of which 2 are alienated. Bounded on the north by Virdel; on the east by Pachora and Amalner; on the south by Sub-divisions of Násik District; and on the west by Pimpalner. Four square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The remainder, according to the revenue survey, contains 345,250 acres, or 72 per cent., of arable land. Of these, in 1878, 178,109 acres, or 53 per cent., were under tillage. In 1862–63, the year of the Bombay settlement for the Sub-division, it embraced 6747 holdings, with an average area of 24 acres, paying an average rent of £2, 3s. 4d. In 1878, cereals occupied 61 per cent. of the land under tillage; pulses, 6·5 per cent.; oil-seeds, 8·7 per cent.; cotton, 22 per cent. The Sub-division is broken by low hills, is watered by the Pánjhra and Bori rivers, and is on the whole fairly wooded and well cultivated. It is traversed from north to south by the road from Agra to Bombay, which divides it into two nearly equal portions, and passes through the town of Dhúliá. The climate is fairly healthy, except just after the rains. The average rainfall of the last 12 years was 23·16 inches. The water-supply, especially in the south, is scanty. The prevailing soil is red, but there are some patches of excellent black loam. The petty district of Songir is included in Dhúliá Sub-division. Land revenue of the Sub-division (1883), £18,651.

Dhúliá.—Chief town of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of the Dhúliá Sub-division; situated in latitude 20° 54′ N., and longitude 74° 46′ 30″ E., on the southern bank of the Pánjhra river, and 30 miles north of Chálísgáon, the nearest railway station. Area, including suburbs, about 2 square miles; houses, 3000. Population (1881) 18,449, namely, 14,018 Hindus, 2973 Muhammadans, 445 Jains, 245 Christians, 26 Pársís, and 742 'others.' Municipal revenue (1882–83), £2998; municipal expenditure, £2535; rate of taxation, 2s. 7½d. per head. The town is divided into New and Old Dhúliá. In the latter, the houses are irregularly built, the majority being of a very humble description. In the former there are regular streets of well-built houses, with a fine stone bridge crossing the Pánjhra. In 1872, Dhúliá was visited by a severe flood, which did much damage to houses and property.

Until the beginning of the present century, Dhúliá was an insignificant village, subordinate to Láling, the capital of the Láling or Fatehábád Sub-division. Under the rule of the Nizám, Láling was incorporated with the District of Daulatábád. The fort of Láling occupies the summit of a high hill, about 6 miles from Dhúliá, overhanging the Agra road and the Avir Pass leading to Málegáon. This stronghold, like all ancient buildings in Khándesh, is locally ascribed to the Gauli Rájá, but it was more probably built by the Farrukhi kings, whose

frontier fortress it subsequently became. To the same Arab princes may be attributed the numerous stone embankments for irrigation found throughout the country, of which those on the Pánjhra river above and below Dhúliá are good examples. The old fort at Dhúliá is also assigned to this dynasty, but it was probably, like the village walls, restored and improved by the Mughal governors. The town appears to have passed successively through the hands of the Arab kings, the Mughals, and the Nizám, and to have fallen into the power of the Maráthás about 1795. In 1803 it was completely deserted by its inhabitants on account of the ravages of Holkar and the terrible famine of that year. In the following year, Bálájí Balwant, a dependant of the Vinchurkar, to whom the *parganás* of Láling and Songir had been granted by the Peshwá, re-peopled the town, and received from the Vinçhurkar, in return for his services, a grant of *inám* land and other privileges. He was subsequently entrusted with the entire management of the territory of Songír and Láling, and fixed his head-quarters at Dhúliá, where he continued to exercise authority till the occupation of the country by the British in 1818. Dhúliá was immediately chosen as the head-quarters of the newly-formed District of Khándesh by Captain Briggs. In January 1819 he obtained sanction for building public offices for the transaction of revenue and judicial business. Artificers were brought from distant places, and the buildings were erected at a total cost of £2700. Every encouragement was offered to traders and others to settle in the new town. Building sites were granted rent free in perpetuity, and advances were made both to the old inhabitants and strangers to enable them to erect substantial houses. At this time, Captain Briggs described Dhúliá as a small town, surrounded by garden cultivation, and shut in between an irrigation channel and the river. In 1819 the population numbered only 2509 persons, living in 401 houses. In 1863 there were 10,000 inhabitants; while by 1872 the number had increased to 12,489, and by 1882 to 18,449. From the date of its occupation by the British, the progress of Dhúliá appears to have been steady; but it is only since the recent development of the trade in cotton and linseed that the town has become of any great importance as a trading centre. Coarse cotton and woollen cloth and turbans are manufactured for local use, and a steam cotton-press was opened in 1876 by Volkart Brothers of Bombay. Since 1872, a little colony of Musalmáns from Allahábád, Benares, and Lucknow have settled at Dhúliá, who say that they left their own homes on account of poverty. They are Momins by caste, and declare themselves orthodox Muhammadans, but their co-religionists in Dhúliá take them to be Wahábís. They support themselves by weaving *sáris* of fine texture, which they sell

at a lower rate than the local merchants. Dhúliá is a cantonment town, and possesses 2 hospitals, telegraph and post offices. Since 1873, on the withdrawal of the detachment of regular Native infantry, the Bhíl Corps have occupied the lines lying to the south-west of the town, where also are the jail, the court-house and offices, and the dwellings of European officers. In the lines situated near the hamlet called Moglái outside Dhúliá proper, is stationed a detachment of Poona Horse. Briggs' Suburb is the newest and most prosperous part of the city. Weekly fair on Thursdays, at which commodities to the estimated value of £5000 change hands. There were in 1879, 5 Government schools, with 551 pupils. In 1883, 465 in-door and 3393 out-door patients were treated in the dispensary.

Dhulián.—Village in Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated on the Ganges. Site of an annual fair, and one of the most important river marts in the District. Large trade in rice, pulses, gram, wheat, and other food-grains.

Dhulípnagar.—Town and cantonment in Bannu District, Punjab. —*See* EDWARDESABAD.

Dhúmá.—Village in Seoní District, Central Provinces; situated 13 miles north of Lakhnádon and 34 miles from Jabalpur on the northern road, at an elevation of 1800 feet above sea-level. Encamping ground, school, police station, and travellers' bungalow. Population about 1000.

Dhurwái. — One of the Hasht-bhai *jágírs* or petty States in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency. The founder of the family was Rái Singh, a descendant of Bír Singh Deo, Rájá of Orchhá, who held the territory of Báragáon. He divided it amongst his eight sons, whence their *jágírs* were called the Hasht-bhai (or eight brothers). There now remain four, of which Dhurwái is one. The present holder, Díwán Ranjúr Singh, is a Hindu Bundela. Area of State, 18 square miles; population (1881) 1598; revenue, £1200.

Dhúsan.—River of Bengal.—*See* PARWAN.

Diamond Harbour.—Sub-division of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated between 21° 31′ and 22° 21′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 4′ and 88° 33′ 30″ E. long. Area, 417 square miles; villages, 1569; occupied houses, 44,402. Total population (1881) 344,330, namely, males 171,732, and females 172,598. Proportion of males in total population, 49·9 per cent. Hindus numbered 253,041; Muhammadans, 88,536; Christians, 2602; Santáls, 34; other aboriginal tribes, 117. Number of persons per square mile, 826; villages per square mile, 3·76; persons per village, 219; houses per square mile, 118; inmates per house, 7·4. The Sub-division comprises the five police circles (*thánás*) of Diamond Harbour, Debípur,

Bánkipur, Kalpí, and Mathurápur. It contains 3 civil and 3 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 106 officers and men, and 921 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The cyclone of October 1864, with its accompanying storm-wave, caused a fearful destruction of life and property here. The greater number of deaths occurred on Ságar Island, within Diamond Harbour Sub-division, and in the Sundarbans. Out of a population of 5625, only 1488 persons escaped. It was estimated that in all the villages within one mile of the river the loss of life was 80 per cent., with a loss of cattle in the same proportion. The famine of 1866 also caused great distress. The extension of the Diamond Harbour line of railway from Sonápur on the Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway, recently opened, will speedily develop the resources of this tract.

Diamond Harbour.—Port and head-quarters of Diamond Harbour Sub-division, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Húglí river, in lat. 22° 11′ 10″ N., long. 88° 13′ 37″ E. Well known as the anchorage of the Company's ships in old times; now a telegraph station. A harbourmaster and customs establishment are maintained here to board vessels proceeding up the river; and the movements of all shipping up or down are telegraphed from Diamond Harbour, and published several times a day in the *Calcutta Telegraph Gazette.* But no town or even village has sprung up; and since the introduction of steam, few vessels have to wait here for the tide. The chief relic of its historical importance is its graveyard. A great scheme for dock-building at Diamond Harbour, as an auxiliary port for Calcutta, has been recently brought forward; but no final decision has yet (1883) been arrived at. Diamond Harbour has now been brought within 38 miles of Calcutta by rail, by the construction of a railway from Sonápur station, on the Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway. Distant from Calcutta 30 miles by a good road, 41 by river.

Diamond Harbour Canal.—In Diamond Harbour Sub-division, Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; extending from Thákurpukur to Kholákhálí, a distance of 23 miles, although a portion of it for three miles in length has silted up.

Diamond Island.—A low wooded island, about 1 mile square in area, and visible at 5 leagues, lying off the mouth of the Bassein river, in Pegu, British Burma. Lat. 15° 51′ 30″ N., and long. 94° 18′ 45″ E. It is 50 miles distant from Pagoda Point, and about 8 miles from Negrais Island or Haing-gyí. In shape it is quadrilateral, its angles facing the points of the compass. During strong southerly gales, landing is difficult. This island appears to have been never occupied by the Burmese, to whom it is known as Meimma-hla-kyun; but it is visited by those engaged in collecting the eggs of turtles, which are very abundant. Important as the home station of the Alguada Reef

lighthouse establishment; and connected with Bassein by telegraph, principally for the use of masters of ships calling for orders.

Dibái.—Thriving market town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; lat. 28° 12′ 30″ N., long. 78° 18′ 35″ E. Distant from Bulandshahr 26 miles south-east, and from Alígarh 26 miles north. It lies between the two head branches of the Chhoiya Nála, whose ravines form an efficient natural drainage-channel; and is said to have been built about the time of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd Ghází, 1029 A.D., upon the ruins of Dhundgarh, a captured Rájput city. Population (1881) 8216, namely, Hindus, 5107; Muhammadans, 3077; Jains, 14; 'others,' 18. Area of town site, 90 acres. Trade has greatly increased since the opening of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, which has a station called Dibái at the village of Kaser, 3 miles distant by metalled road. The weekly market held on Monday is now the largest in the District; a spacious masonry terrace has been built for the convenience of traders, and adjoining it a fine tank is now (1883) far advanced towards completion. The town contains four *saráis* or native inns, two schools, a post-office, and a police station. The *bázár* is being greatly enlarged. The fortunes of this town have varied inversely with those of Anúpshahr, the present head-quarters (as Dibái was formerly) of the *tahsíl*, which is now declining. A small revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised in Dibái under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856, but the town will doubtless soon be constituted a regular municipality.

Dibru (or *Sonápur*).—A river in the southern half of Lakhimpur District, Assam, which flows from east to west, nearly parallel to the Brahmaputra, for about 100 miles, and finally empties itself into that river just below the town of Dibrugarh, to which it has given its name.

Dibrugarh.—The head-quarters Sub-division of Lakhimpur District, Assam, comprising the two divisions formerly known as Matak and Sadiyá, consisting of the whole of the District lying south of the Brahmaputra, and the eastern portion of the area to the north of it. Area, 2038 square miles. Population in 1881, 126,143, namely, Hindus, 109,053; Muhammadans, 4029; and 'others,' 13,061. Number of villages, 697; number of houses, 19,718. The Sub-division contains the police circles (*thánás*) of Dibrugarh, Dum-duma, Jaipur, and Sadiyá.

Dibrugarh ('*Fort on the Dibru river*').—Chief town and head-quarters of Lakhimpur District, Assam; situated in lat. 27° 28′ 30″ N., and long. 94° 57′ 30″ E., on the Dibru river, about 4 miles above its confluence with the Brahmaputra. Population (1881) 7153, including the troops in the military cantonment. Hindus numbered 5222; Muhammadans, 1881; and Christians, 50. Dibrugarh is the terminus of the river trade, as commercial steamers never run higher; they

stop at Dibrumukh, where the Dibru river flows into the Brahmaputra. The exports are almost entirely confined to tea and caoutchouc; the imports comprise cotton goods, rice, salt, and oil. The head-quarters of one of the three Assam Infantry Regiments, numbering about 500 fighting men, is stationed in the cantonments.

Diddaur.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; on the banks of the Sai, 4 miles from Bareli town, on the road leading to Unao. A flourishing town, pleasantly situated among numerous groves, with a population (1881) of 1987, namely, 1930 Hindus and 57 Muhammadans.

Díg (*Deeg*).—Town and fortress in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Rájputána, Central India. Latitude 27° 28′ N., and longitude 77° 22′ E. Population (1881) 15,828, namely, 13,035 Hindus and 2793 Muhammadans. Lies in a marshy tract, amid numerous *jhíls* or shallow lakes, fed by the stream of the Mánás Nái. Almost inaccessible to an enemy during the greater part of the year, being nearly surrounded with water. Before being dismantled by the British, it possessed great strength, and its fort, 24 miles west of Muttra, still commands the whole town. The Rájá's palace, a beautiful building of massive sandstone blocks, decorated with oriental profusion, adjoins the citadel. Díg lays claim to great antiquity, being mentioned by name in the Puránas. Wrested from the Játs in 1776 by Najaf Khán, it reverted after his death to the Rájá of Bhartpur. On November 13, 1804, a British force, under General Fraser, defeated the army of Holkar; and the Játs having fired upon the conquerors, siege was laid to the town in the succeeding month, and it was carried by storm on the 23rd. Dismantled after the capture of Bhartpur by Lord Combermere. The town of Díg is noted for the *banwans* or palaces built by Suráj, which are justly celebrated for their elegance of design and perfection of workmanship. The fort, built by Budan Singh, has been more than once besieged and taken; near it are the ruins of another fortress, apparently of older date.

Digbijaiganj.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Haidargarh *tahsíl* of Bára Bánki District, on the east by Musáfirkhána *tahsíl* of Sultánpur, on the south by Salon and Rái Bareli *tahsíls*, and on the west by Púrwa *tahsíl* of Unao District. Lat. 26° 17′ 30″ to 26° 36′ N., long. 81° 1′ 30″ to 81° 37′ E. Area, 465 square miles, of which 219 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 245,079, namely, 224,007 Hindus, and 21,072 Muhammadans; males 119,081, and females 125,998. Number of villages or towns, 364. The *tahsíl* comprises the *parganás* of Inhauná, Brachhráwán, Kumhráwán, Hardoi, Simráuta, and Mohánganj, of which 207 are *talúkdári*, 55 *zamíndári*, 101 *pattidári*, and 1 rent-free. A *tahsíldár* exercising the powers of a third-class magistrate, and an inspector of police

are stationed at Digbijaiganj village, 12 miles distant from Bareli town.

Diggi.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, Central India. Distant about 42 miles south from Jaipur. Has a mud fort of some strength, and is surrounded by a mud wall. An important fair, Kaliánjí, attended by some 15,000 pilgrims, is held here annually.

Dighori. — Village in Sakoli *tahsíl*, Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2852, namely, Hindus, 2766; Muhammadans, 17; Jains, 2; and persons professing aboriginal religions, 180.

Dígnagar.—Village in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 22′ N., long. 87° 45′ E. Described by Jacquemont as a place of some importance; now a local market for grain and sugar, and noted for its brass and bell-metal ware.

Digras.—Town in Wún District, Berár. Latitude 20° 6′ N., longitude 77° 45′ E.; 18 miles south of Dárwa. An important market for the cotton of the western half of the District. Population (1881) 3885, dwelling in 864 houses; Government vernacular school, post-office, police station, and travellers' bungalow.

Digru (or *Sonápuriá*).—River of Assam, rising in the Khási Hills, and flowing north-eastwards into Kamrúp District, where it emerges near the village of Sonápur, whence it is sometimes locally known as the Sonápuriá. It joins the Kalang river just above the junction of the latter with the Brahmaputra. In the Khási Hills, the Digru is known as the Um-thru.

Digsár.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Gonda and Mahádewa, on the east by Nawábganj, on the south by the Gogra river, and on the west by Gwárich. A well-wooded plain, covered almost throughout with careful cultivation. The northern and western tracts are watered by the Terh; the centre, which has the richest soil, is drained by a number of small channels, and supports a denser population than is found in the north or south. The southern division, along the Gogra border, is generally marked by a light soil, and the cultivated spots are interspersed with large barren plains, overgrown with grass and scrub jungle. The whole *parganá* lies low, and is liable, after heavy rains, to destructive floods. Area, 157½ square miles, or 100,696 acres, of which 62,361 acres are under cultivation, nearly one-half yielding two crops in the year. Area under principal crops—rice, 14,947 acres; Indian corn, 20,921; wheat, 14,830; gram, 5263; and barley, 3615 acres. Population (1881) 94,833, namely, Hindus, 89,964, and Muhammadans, 4869; males 47,951, and females 46,882; average density of population, 604 persons per square mile. No manufactures, except a solitary saltpetre factory.

Dih.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; 10 miles from Bareli

town, on the banks of the Sái. Population (1881) 2751, namely, Hindus, 2536; Muhammadans, 215. Good *bázár*.

Dihang (or *Dihong*).—River in Lakhimpur District, Assam, one of the three which contribute to make up the BRAHMAPUTRA. It brings down the largest volume of water, and is generally regarded as the continuation of the Tsanpu or great river of Tibet, and thus the real parent of the Brahmaputra. It is supposed to pierce the barrier range of the Himálayas through a narrow gorge in the Abar Hills.

Dihing.—The name of two rivers in Lakhimpur District, Assam, which contribute to make up the waters of the Brahmaputra—(1) the Noá Dihing, rising in the Singpho Hills in the extreme eastern frontier of British territory, flows in a westerly direction into the main stream of the Brahmaputra just above Sadiyá; (2) the Burí Dihing rises in the Pátkai Hills in the south-east corner of Lakhimpur District, and also flows in a westerly direction, past Jaipur town, and finally forms the boundary between Lakhimpur and Sibságar Districts before reaching the Brahmaputra. It is navigable up to Jaipur by steamers during the rainy season. The two rivers are connected by an artificial channel, passing near the village of Bisagáon. The valley of the Burí Dihing contains an extensive coal-field, with outcrops at Jaipur and Mákum. The total marketable out-turn is estimated at about 20 million tons, of excellent quality, and there are tolerable facilities for water-carriage. Petroleum also exists in abundance in the same tract. In 1866, both the coal and the petroleum were worked under a Government grant by a European capitalist, but on his death the enterprise was discontinued. In the years 1874–1876, the mineral resources of this tract were examined by an officer of the Geological Survey, and favourably reported on. A company called the Assam Railway and Trading Company, formed for the purpose chiefly of exploiting the Mákum coal, has recently constructed a railway on the metre gauge from the Dibrugarh steamer *ghát* to Dam-Dama, a distance of 45 miles, and thence on to Mákum coal-fields, crossing the Dihing river above the Mákum fort. The first rails were laid in 1881, and the line was opened throughout in 1883.

Diji (*Kot Diji*, also called *Ahmadábád*).—Fort in the Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 27° 20′ 45″ N., longitude 68° 45′ E. Of no importance as a place of strength. A jail has recently been built below the fort.

Dikthán.—Town in Sindhia's territory, and the capital of a *parganá* of Gwalior, under the Bhíl or Bhopáwar Agency of Central India; situated 16 miles west of Mhau (Mhow) and 14 miles due east of Dhár. The *parganá* is held in *jágír* by Hunwant Ráo Madik and Rám Ráo Madik, and the revenue is £4000 per annum. The *parganá* is managed by two *kumaisdárs*, or agents for the *jágírdárs*, who always

reside at Gwalior. Appeals from the *kumaisdár's* decisions are referred to the Naib Subah of Amjhera.

Diláwár.—Fort in Baháwalpur State, Punjab. Lat. 28° 44′ N., long. 71° 14′ E. Situated in a desert, 40 miles from the left bank of the river Panjnad. Very difficult of access. The old fort is said to have been originally built by Rái Dhera Sidh Bhalt in 843 A.D. It remained in the possession of the Rájás of Jaisalmer (Jeysulmere) until 1748, when it was seized by the Dáúdputras shortly after their settlement in Baháwalpur.

Dilwára.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) Native State, Rájputána. Situated among the eastern ranges of the Aravallis, 14 miles north-east of Udaipur. Dilwára is the chief town of the estate of a first-class noble of Udaipur, who owns 149 villages. The palace of the chief is on a hill to the south, overlooking the town. About 2½ miles farther to the south is the hill-temple of Dilwára, on a remarkable conical peak about 1000 feet above the town; the ascent is by a zig-zag road cut out of the rock on its western and south-western faces. This hill forms a landmark for miles around.

Dimápur.—Village in the Nágá Hills District, Assam; on the Dhaneswari (Dhansiri) river, 12 miles north of Samáguting; the site of an early capital of the Cachari Rájás, the ruins and tanks of which are still to be found amid the jungle.

The following description of these ruins is quoted, in a somewhat condensed form, from the *Assam Administration Report* for 1880–81, pp. 233, 234:—'The site of the city is now overgrown with dense jungle, and till recently, when a small *bázár* was started, was entirely uninhabited. There are several splendid tanks of clear water, and a walled enclosure, supposed to have been a fort. The walls can be distinctly traced, and must originally have been upwards of 12 feet in height by 6 in width. They are built throughout of burnt brick of excellent quality. The enclosure is entered by a solid brick-built gateway with some pretensions to architectural beauty; it has a Moorish arch, and the stone hinges of the door are still visible, though all traces of woodwork have vanished. Much of the wall has fallen into decay, and the bricks falling on either side form a mass of *débris*, now covered with vegetable mould. The enclosure is as nearly as possible a perfect square, each side being about 800 yards in length. Two faces are further protected by a deep moat, and it is noticeable that these two are those farthest from the river; indeed, it seems probable that the builders of the structure refrained from continuing the moat on the two faces nearest the river, lest the stream might cut into them and undermine the foundations of the walls. Inside the fortification are three small ruined tanks, one of which has a flight of brick steps leading to where the water once was; and immediately to the back of it a ruined

mass of brick and earth, with the remains of brick steps leading up to it. This is supposed to have been either an altar or a *chabutra* (raised platform) on which the Rájás used to sit after bathing. The most interesting relics in the fort, however, are the monolithic pillars, one group of which, ranged in four rows of 15 each, stands not far from the gateway, on the left hand, and another smaller group at a little distance on the right. Of the first group, two rows consist of mushroom-shaped pillars with rounded heads, and the other two of square pillars of a very peculiar V-shape. All are richly covered with tracery of some artistic merit. For what purpose the round-headed pillars were erected it is impossible to say. They cannot have supported a roof, because they are of unequal heights, and the tracery with which they are covered extends over the whole head. The site has been so long deserted, and the people whose capital it once was are so widely scattered, that no trustworthy traditions have survived to explain the uses of the building. There is nowhere any trace of inscriptions or written character of any kind. At present, with the exception of the site of the pillars, where the trees have been cut down, the whole interior of the fort is covered with dense jungle; and when the undergrowth is cleared, other relics may possibly be brought to light.'

Dimápur is now a police outpost, and the centre of some trade with the Nágás, as the river is navigable up to this point by country boats. All around is wild jungle.

Dinájpur.—The District of Dinájpur occupies the west of the Rájsháhí Kuch Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 24° 43′ 40″ and 26° 22′ 50″ N. lat., and between 88° 4′ 0″ and 89° 21′ 5″ E. long., being bounded roughly on the east by the Karataya, and on the west by the Mahánandá river. Area, 4118 square miles; population (1881) 1,514,346 souls. The administrative headquarters are at DINAJPUR TOWN, on the left bank of the Purnábhábá.

Physical Aspects.—The District exhibits a less uniformly level appearance than the rest of Northern Bengal. The plain that stretches from the Himálayas to the Ganges is here represented by a peculiar clay formation, locally known as *khiár*, which is sufficiently stiff to resist the diluviating action of the rivers. In the southern part of the District, and again in the north-west along the Kulik river, this clay soil rises into undulating ridges, some of which attain the height of 100 feet. The entire country is intersected by numerous rivers, which run in well-defined channels and have deposited in their floods a later alluvium of sandy loam, called *palí*. The agriculture of the District is determined by the difference between these two kinds of soil. The river valleys are everywhere much wider than the narrow limits within which the streams are confined during the dry season. In the rains, the flood-water spreads out into large lakes, about 2 miles across; but there are

few permanent marshes of any size throughout the District. The clay ridges in the south are still much overgrown with scrub-jungle, which affords cover to numerous wild beasts, and yields little forest produce of any value.

The rivers in Dinájpur arrange themselves into two systems, one of which carries off the drainage southwards by the Mahánandá into Maldah District, while the other is connected with the old Tístá river, and flows in a south-easterly direction towards Bográ and Rájsháhí. The MAHANANDA itself only skirts the western frontier of the District for about 30 miles; its chief tributaries are the NAGAR, TANGAN, and PURNABHABA. All these rivers are only navigable for large boats during the rains. They run through the *khiár* country, along shallow valleys, bordered by elevated clay ridges. The TISTA river system has been much broken up by the violent changes which took place in the course of the main channel towards the close of the last century. The various channels of the old Tístá still flowing through Dinájpur are now known as the ATRAI, JAMUNA, and KARATAYA. Their value for boat traffic has been greatly lessened by the circumstance that the main volume of the water now finds its way eastwards into the Brahmaputra. There are several short artificial canals in the District; but some of them appear to have been dug with a view to facilitate religious processions, rather than as a means of assisting trade.

Sál woods occur throughout the District, but are principally found in small patches along the course of the Karataya river. These forests yield a considerable revenue to the landholders to whom they belong, but the trees generally are stunted in growth, and the timber is of inferior quality. The jungle products consist of beeswax, *anantámul* and *sátámul* (vegetable drugs), and the flowers of a tree called *singáhár*, from which a dye is made. Large breadths of pasture-land are scattered throughout the District. They pay no rent, and some of the peasantry engage in pasturing cattle in these tracts as an additional means of subsistence. The wild animals of the District comprise the tiger, leopard, civet cat, tiger cat, polecat, buffalo, wild hog, *bará singha* or large deer, hog deer, jackal, fox, mongoose, badger, crocodile, etc. Tigers mostly infest the dense, tangled jungle and grass patches; leopards are found everywhere, and numbers of cows and goats are annually destroyed by them; buffaloes and hog commit great havoc amongst the sugar-cane and rice cultivation. Game and other wild birds are plentiful, and fish of many varieties are numerous, the fisheries being of considerable value.

History.—Dinájpur District, with the rest of Bengal, passed under British rule in 1765, and has no independent history of its own.

Population.—In the beginning of the present century, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in the course of his statistical inquiries, arrived at a most

elaborate estimate of the population of Dinájpur. His calculations yielded a total of about 3 millions, or 558 persons to the square mile. The District was then about one-third larger than at present. During the Revenue Survey (1857–61), when the area of the District was also somewhat larger than now, the number of houses was counted, and the inhabitants living therein were estimated to number 1,042,832, or only 227 per square mile. It seems probable that this latter estimate was as much too low, as Dr. B. Hamilton's estimate must have been too high. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,501,924 persons, on an area corresponding to that of the present District. In 1881, the Census returned the population at 1,514,346, showing an increase of 12,422, or less than 1 per cent., during the nine years from 1872 to 1881. This small increase is due to the ravages of malarious fever, for which the District has an evil reputation. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 4118 square miles, with 6921 towns and villages, and 272,368 houses, of which 268,647 were occupied and 3721 unoccupied. Total population 1,514,346, namely, males 782,292, and females 732,054; average density, 368 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·68; persons per village, 219; houses per square mile, 66·14; inmates per house, 5·64. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 716,630; Muhammadans, 795,824; Christians, 457; and Santáls, still professing their aboriginal faith, 1435. There can be no doubt that in Dinájpur, even to a greater extent than in the rest of Bengal, the great bulk of the people are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority became willing converts to the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining out-castes beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. The tribes now ranked as aboriginal are poorly represented, numbering 23,355. They come from Chutiá Nágpur to work on the roads or to clear jungle. Among them are the Bhumij, 6834; Santál, 6813; Kol, 316; Kharwár, 213; Bhuinya, 45; and 'others,' 9450. The semi-Hinduized aborigines, who are nearly twice as numerous as the Hindus proper, mostly consist of the kindred races of Pálí, Rájbansí, and Koch. These three tribes number collectively 407,923 of the Hindu population. The few who retain the name of Koch are palanquin-bearers; Rájbansí is the high-sounding title which they have adopted for themselves; whereas Pálí is the appellation applied to them by their neighbours. This last term is almost confined to Dinájpur and the adjoining District of Maldah; it would not be recognised in Kuch Behar State. Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 8913; they are traditionally reported to have settled in the District within recent times. The Rájputs number only 2885; the Káyasths, 6024. By far the most numerous castes are the Kaibartta with 37,785, the Harí with 31,934, and the Baniyá with 21,149

members; the fishing castes are also strongly represented, especially the Jáliyá, with 13,560 members. The other castes with upwards of 5000 members are — Nápit, 12,735; Tántí, 9045; Chandál, 7180; Dosádh, 6000; Lohár, 5725; Kumbhár, 5352; Gwálá, 5123; and Sunrí, 5096. The Bráhma Samáj has a small body of followers at Dinájpur town, who are mostly engaged in Government service; and at the same place there are a few families of Jain merchants, immigrants from the north-west, with their servants and retainers. The Vaishnavs are returned at 19,349, which number only includes the professed religious mendicants; many of the Pálí tribe are said to belong to this sect. The Muhammadans belong almost entirely to the agricultural class; few of them are landholders, and still fewer engage in trade. The reforming sect of Wahábís or Faráizís is known to have exercised some influence among them, but no active fanaticism exists. A little immigration into Dinájpur of a temporary character takes place every harvest season; emigration from the District there is none.

The entire population is absolutely rural. The only place returned in the Census Report as containing more than 5000 inhabitants is DINAJPUR TOWN, population (1881) 12,560. The people display no tendency towards urban life, but rather the reverse. The trading marts consist merely of a line of *golás* or warehouses along the river banks, where agricultural produce can be conveniently stored until the rainy season opens the rivers for navigation. Out of a total of 6921 villages, as many as 4749 contain less than two hundred inhabitants each; 1544 from two to five hundred; 445 from five hundred to a thousand; 149 from one to two thousand; 26 from two to three thousand; 7 from three to five thousand; and 1 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. As regards the occupations of the people, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six main classes:—Class (1) Professional, including military, civil, and all officers of Government, with the learned professions, 10,571; (2) domestic servants, and keepers of lodging-houses, etc., 29,776; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, and carriers, 17,022; (4) agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, and tenders of sheep and cattle, 393,589; (5) industrial class, comprising manufacturers and artisans, 41,359; (6) indefinite and unproductive, including general labourers, male children, and persons of no stated occupation, 289,975. Almost the whole population live by agriculture; even among the shopkeeper and artisan classes, nearly every household supplement their ordinary means of livelihood by cultivating a small patch of land, either by their own hands, or if sufficiently well off, through others, who receive a share of the crop in return for their labour. Generally speaking, a cultivator's entire holding is under rice, with the exception of a small patch around the homestead, on which he raises crops of vegetables. The material condition of the people is said

to be, as a rule, superior to that of the peasantry of the more advanced Districts of the Gangetic delta, and the mode of living much more simple than in the Districts to the south. As a rule, every husbandman has more than one wife. The husband does all the work of the fields, while the wives stay at home and weave clothing or sackcloth, the surplus of which, after providing for home consumption, is disposed of at the nearest village market. The weaving of jute into gunny cloth is entirely a feminine occupation.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District. Of the total food-supply, the *áman* or winter crop, grown on low lands and usually transplanted, furnishes about 80 per cent.; the *áus* or autumn crop, grown on high lands, about 16 per cent.; the *boro* or spring crop, grown on the borders of marshes and rivers, in certain tracts about 4 per cent. This last is the only crop in the District which demands irrigation, and the water required is easily obtained from the immediate neighbourhood. Among miscellaneous crops may be mentioned maize and millet, pulses, oil-seeds, tobacco, jute, sugar-cane, *pán* or betel leaf. The staples grown for export are rice and jute. The cultivation of sugar-cane is on the decline. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is applied to *khiár* rice lands, and to the more valuable crops grown on *palí* soil. *Khiár* land is never allowed to lie fallow, but *palí* requires an occasional rest of about one year in every five. The principle of the rotation of crops is not known. There is still a good deal of spare land capable of cultivation, to be found in most parts of the District. Horned cattle are very abundant; but owing to the indifference shown in breeding, they are mostly of a poor class. There is abundance of the ordinary pasturage of Bengal in the District. The average produce of an acre of good rice land renting at 9s. is about 20 cwts. of rice, valued at £1, 18s.; exceptionally good land will sometimes yield as much as 37 cwts. per acre. *Khiár* land produces only one rice crop in the year; but from *palí* land a second crop of oil-seeds or pulses is obtained in the cold season, in addition to the *áus* rice. This cold-weather crop may be valued at from £1, 10s. to £2, 2s. per acre. The rate of rent paid for *khiár* land varies from 9s. to 12s. an acre; *palí* land rents at from 6s. to £1, 10s. There is little peculiarity in the land tenures of Dinájpur. It is estimated that over about five-eighths of the total area of the District the superior landlords have parted with their rights in favour of intermediate tenure-holders. Only a small fraction of the cultivators have won for themselves rights of occupancy by a continuous holding of more than twelve years; the great majority are mere tenants-at-will.

The following were the current rates of wages in 1881:—Coolies and agricultural day-labourers received 6s. a month with food, or 10s. a month without food; bricklayers and carpenters, from 12s. to £1, 10s.

a month; smiths, from 12s. to £1. In the same year, the prices of food-grains were as follow:—Common rice, 2s. 6d. per *maund* of 80 lbs.; common paddy or unhusked rice, 2s. per *maund;* barley, 4s. per *maund;* barley flour, 8s. per *maund.* The highest price reached by rice in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 8s. per *maund.*

Dinájpur is exceptionally free from either of the calamities of flood or drought. Owing to the rising of the rivers and the heavy local rainfall, a considerable portion of the District is annually laid under water; but this inundation is productive of good rather than harm. The single occasion on which the general harvest has been known to be injuriously affected, was in the autumn of 1873, when the protracted drought caused a failure of the *áman* rice crop, upon which the population almost entirely depends for its food-supply. It was only the prompt interference of Government that prevented scarcity from intensifying into famine, and £162,188 was expended on relief operations.

For the future, Dinájpur District will be saved from the danger of isolation by the Northern Bengal State Railway, opened a few years ago, which runs northward for about 30 miles through its eastern half, and which is being still further extended from east to west, passing through Dinájpur town. Roads are numerous, and traverse the District in all directions to the extent of 1200 miles. Another important means of communication are the rivers, which unfortunately are only navigable by large boats during three or four months in the year.

Manufactures, etc.—The whole population is so entirely agricultural, that scarcely any manufactures exist. Neither indigo nor silk is prepared, and the production of sugar has decreased since the beginning of this century. A little coarse cotton cloth is made for home use; and in some parts a durable fabric called *meklí* is woven from the wild rhea grass. Gunny cloth is manufactured to a considerable extent in the north of the District, this industry being chiefly confined to the women of the Koch tribe.

Until the opening of the railway, Dinájpur was almost entirely dependent upon its rivers for all its trade. The chief exports are rice, jute, tobacco, sugar, gunny cloth, and hides; the imports are piece-goods, salt, and hardware. The western half of the District, so far as the valley of the Purnábhábá, exports its surplus rice towards Behar and the North-Western Provinces by means of the Mahánandá; the eastern half uses the old channels of the Tístá and the Northern Bengal State Railway, and sends its produce direct to Calcutta. During the dry season, pack-bullocks and carts traverse the whole country, carrying the surplus rice to the river marts, to be there stored until the streams swell. The principal of these depôts are Nítpur, Chandganj, Birámpur, and Pátirám. The most important centre of local buying and selling is

the NEKMARD fair, which is held annually in honour of a Musalmán saint, and attended by about 150,000 persons. Properly, it is a cattle fair, but traders frequent it with miscellaneous articles collected from the farthest corners of India. Lesser gatherings take place at Alawárkháwá, Dhaldighí, and Sontápur. The registration returns of river traffic are only useful for Dinájpur in so far as they refer to the exports. The imports into the District are chiefly received overland, passing by routes that escape registration. For the year 1881–82 the exports were valued at £480,750, against imports worth only £172,000. The chief exports are—Rice and paddy, 2,600,000 *maunds*, valued together at £325,000 (placing Dinájpur seventh in the list of rice-exporting Districts in Bengal); jute, 275,000 *maunds*, valued at £68,750; gunny cloth, 600,000 pieces, valued at £72,000; hides, 80,000 in number, valued at £10,000; other exports valued at £5000. The principal imports are—salt, 160,000 *maunds*, valued at £48,000; and European piece-goods, valued at £80,000. Of the local marts, Ráiganj stands first, with exports valued at £47,300 (almost entirely jute and gunny-bags), and imports valued at £12,000; Nítpur exported £40,000 (solely rice), and imported £6000. Of the total quantity of rice, 1,400,000 *maunds* were consigned direct to Calcutta, and the remainder to Behar and the North-Western Provinces.

Administration.—In 1870–71, the net revenue of Dinájpur District was £212,340, towards which the land-tax contributed £173,454, or 81 per cent.; the net expenditure amounted to £36,839, or little more than one-sixth of the revenue. By 1881–82, the total net revenue had slightly decreased to £197,137, towards which the land-tax contributed £163,755, or a little over 83 per cent. The net expenditure amounted to £37,376. The large proportion derived from the land revenue is to be explained by the circumstance that Dinájpur was in an exceptionally prosperous condition at the date of the Permanent Settlement. In 1881–82 there were 3 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District, and 7 magisterial and 9 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes, Dinájpur is divided into 17 *thánás* or police circles. In 1881 the regular police force numbered 385 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost to Government of £6680. In addition, there was a municipal police of 32 men, and a rural police or village watch of 5199 men, maintained by the villagers at an estimated cost in money and rent-free land of £11,457. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 5626 officers and men, giving 1 man to every ·73 of a square mile of area, or to every 260 persons in the population. In 1881, the total number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, amounted to 1250, or 1 person to every 1211 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains 1 jail at

Dinájpur town. In 1881, the average daily number of prisoners was 175, of whom 4 were women; the labouring convicts averaged 145. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 8904 of the population.

Education has widely spread of recent years, owing to the changes by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended, first to the vernacular middle-class schools, and ultimately to the village schools or *páthsálás*. In 1856 there were only 10 schools in the District, attended by 532 pupils. In 1860 both these numbers had actually decreased; but by 1870 the number of schools had risen to 247, and the pupils to 5723. In 1872 there was a further increase to 456 Government inspected schools and 8174 pupils; and in 1881–82, to 487 Government and aided schools, attended by 11,188 pupils, showing 1 school to every 8 square miles, and 7·3 pupils to every 1000 of the population. The higher-class English school at Dinájpur town was attended by 185 pupils. There are also a number of private indigenous schools. The Census Report in 1881 returned 19,493 boys and 318 girls as under instruction; and 44,408 males and 430 females as able to read and write but not under instruction.

Up to the close of 1883, the sub-divisional system of administration had not been extended to Dinájpur. The District is divided into the following 17 police circles:—(1) Dinájpur, (2) Rájarámpur, (3) Bírganj, (4) Thákurgáon, (5) Ránísankail, (6) Pírganj, (7) Hemtábád, (8) Káliganj, (9) Bansihári, (10) Patnitála, (11) Mahádeo, (12) Porshá, (13) Patirám, (14) Gangárámpur, (15) Chintáman, (16) Parbatípur, and (17) Nawábganj. The *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions are 81 in number, with an aggregate of 778 revenue-paying estates.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Dinájpur is considerably cooler than that of the Gangetic delta. The hot weather does not set in so early, and the temperature at night continues low until the end of April. During the winter months a heavy dew falls at night, and a thick mist hangs over the ground until dispelled by the morning sun. It has been observed that the hot season proves the least healthy to strangers, while the natives suffer most at the close of the rains. The average annual rainfall for a period of over 20 years is returned at 76·83 inches. In 1881, the rainfall was 60·32 inches, or 16·51 inches below the average. The mean annual temperature is about 83·5° F.; the maximum being 104° in the month of May, the minimum 63° in December.

The principal diseases of the District are remittent and continued fevers, ague, enlargement of the spleen, bowel complaints, cholera, and small-pox. The outbreaks of small-pox are to be referred to the popular practice of inoculation. The District has a bad reputation for malarial fevers, which during the nine years from 1872 to 1881 kept down the increase of the population to less than 1 per cent. In 1872, the

reported deaths from fever in Dinájpur were higher than in any other District of the Division. The four following years showed little improvement, and in 1876 the fever mortality was 22·05 per thousand of the whole population. In 1877, which a general consensus of opinion declares to have been the most unhealthy year in this District within living memory, over 30,000 deaths were reported from fevers alone. Out of seventeen adult Europeans, fifteen had to leave the District during the year, broken down by repeated attacks of fever, and official business could hardly be carried on. This terrible mortality drew renewed attention to the insanitary condition of the District, and a committee was appointed to report on the causes of this great unhealthiness and to suggest means for improving the health of the station. The investigations demonstrated the existence of a terrible amount of constant sickness and a very high death-rate. An examination of nearly a thousand individuals showed that nearly 75 per cent. of the inhabitants were in bad health, while 53 per cent. had marked enlargement of the spleen. It so happened that this District was at the time that in which death registration was best carried out in all Bengal; and it was found that the death-rate in the municipality was 42 per thousand, nearly double the death-rate of London, while the police died at the rate of 46, and the prisoners in jail at the rate of 74·6 per thousand. Eventually, a scheme was drawn up and carried out for draining the neighbourhood of Dinájpur town, which has been attended with beneficial results. A slight remission of fever followed in 1878 and 1879, but it returned with increased virulence in 1880. In 1881, the total registered deaths were returned at 29,403, or 21·50 per 1000 of the population. The real death-rate was no doubt much higher. There were in 1881 eight charitable dispensaries in the District, namely, at Dinájpur town, Ráiganj, Churáman, Mahádeopur, and Balúrghat, at which 322 in-door and 8843 out-door patients were treated during the year. [For further information regarding Dinájpur, see Hunter's *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vii. pp. 355–461 (Trübner & Co., London, 1876). Also the *Geographical and Statistical Account of Dinájpur District*, by Major Sherwill, Revenue Surveyor (1863); the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the *Annual Administration Reports of Bengal* from 1880 to 1883.]

Dinájpur.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Dinájpur District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Purnábhábá, just below its point of confluence with the Dhápá river, in lat. 25° 38′ N., and long. 88° 40′ 46″ E. Population (1881) 12,560, namely, 6407 Muhammadans, 6059 Hindus, and 94 'others.' Area of town site, 3200 acres. Dinájpur is the only municipality in the District, with a total revenue in 1881–82 of £6297, of which £1386 was derived from taxation, and the balance from other sources, chiefly receipts from municipal lands,

public gardens, etc., £4651; and grant from provincial revenues, £1500. Expenditure in 1881–82, £7741.

Dinánagar.—Town in Gurdaspur *tahsíl*, Gurdaspur District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 32° 8′ 15″ N., and long. 75° 31′ E., on a low and swampy plain, the source of the river Kirran, whose malarious exhalations render the town unhealthy, and produce endemic fever. Population (1881) 5589, namely, 2842 Hindus, 2700 Muhammadans, 40 Sikhs, and 6 'others.' Derives its name from Adína Beg, the opponent of the Sikhs in 1752. A dilapidated mud wall surrounds the town; the neighbourhood is profusely irrigated from the Bári Doáb Canal, and dense vegetation comes up to the very gates. Centre of trade in country produce; annual cattle fair during the *Dasahára* festival. Groves of mango and plum trees surround the town, which was the residence of Mahárájá Ranjít Singh during the rainy season. The navigation canal runs close by the town. Head-quarters of a police sub-division (*thána*) and charitable dispensary. Lies on the main road from Amritsar to Pathánkot, 8 miles north-east of Gurdáspur. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £761; expenditure, £608; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 6¼d. per head of the population.

Dinápur (*Dánápur*).—Sub-division of Patná District, Bengal; situated between 25° 32′ and 25° 44′ N. lat., and between 84° 50′ 15″ and 85° 7′ E. long. Area, 143 square miles; number of villages, 349; houses, 27,041. Total population (1881) 166,128, namely, 78,503 males and 87,625 females. Hindus numbered 140,013; Muhammadans, 24,122; Christians, 1985; and Jews, 8. Average number of persons per square mile, 1162; villages per square mile, 2·44; persons per village, 476; houses per square mile, 211; inmates per house, 6·1. The Sub-division comprises the police circles (*thánás*) of Dinápur and Máner. It contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 180 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 244.

Dinápur (*Dánápur*).—Cantonment and military head-quarters of Patná District, Bengal, in the Allahábád Military Division; situated on the right or south bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 38′ 19″ N., long. 85° 5′ 8″ E. Divided into two parts, the Cantonments and the Nizámat or municipal area. Population (1881) of the Cantonment and the town proper, 37,893, namely, Hindus, 26,513; Muhammadans, 9700; Christians and 'others,' 1680; area, 5884 acres. Municipal income (1882–82), £873, of which £839 was derived from taxation, or at the rate of 8½d. per head of the population (23,740) within municipal limits. The military force quartered at Dinápur in September 1883 consisted of 2 European and 1 Native infantry regiment, with 2 batteries of Royal Artillery. The cantonment magistrate administers the whole Dinápur Sub-division. The road from Dinápur to Bánkipur, the civil head-quarters of Patná District, 6 miles in length, is lined throughout with houses and

cottages; in fact, Dinápur, Bánkipur, and Patná may be regarded as forming one continuous narrow city hemmed in between the Ganges and the railway.

The Mutiny of 1857, in Patná District, originated at Dinápur. The three Sepoy regiments stationed there broke into open revolt in July, and went off *en masse*, taking only their arms and accoutrements with them. Thus lightly equipped, the majority effected their escape into Sháhábád, a friendly country, with nothing to oppose them but the courage of a handful of English civilians, indigo planters, and railway engineers. A reinforcement was sent from the European garrison of Dinápur to aid in the defence of ARRAH, which was shortly after besieged by the rebel Sepoys. The expedition failed disastrously, but individual acts of heroism saved the honour of the British name. Two volunteers, Mr. Fraser M'Donell and Mr. Ross Mangles, both of the Civil Service, conspicuously distinguished themselves by acts of intrepid valour. The former, although wounded, was one of the last men to enter the boats. The insurgents had taken the oars of his boat and had lashed the rudder, so that although the wind was favourable for retreat, the current carried it back to the river bank. Thirty-five soldiers were in the boat, sheltered from fire by the usual thatch covering; but while the rudder was being fixed, the inmates remained at the mercy of the enemy. At this crisis, Mr. Fraser M'Donell stepped out from the shelter, climbed on to the roof of the boat, perched himself on the rudder, and cut the lashings amidst a storm of bullets from the contiguous bank. Strangely enough, not a ball struck him; the rudder was loosened, the boat answered to the helm, and by Mr. M'Donell's brilliant act the crew were saved from certain destruction. Mr. Ross Mangles' conduct was equally heroic. During the retreat, a soldier was struck down near him. He stopped, lifted the man on to his back, and though he had frequently to rest on the way, he managed to carry the wounded man for 6 miles, till he reached the stream. He then swam with his helpless burden to a boat, in which he deposited him in safety. Both these civilians afterwards received the Victoria Cross as a reward for their valour.

Dindigal (*Dindú-kal*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Madura District, Madras Presidency; area, 1132 square miles, containing 1 town and 208 villages; number of houses, 52,527; population (1881) 304,783, namely, 147,736 males and 157,047 females. Classified according to religion —Hindus, 272,679; Muhammadans, 12,239; and Christians, 19,865, of whom 17,166 are native Roman Catholics. Formerly a separate Province, though subject to Madura, it was ceded by the treaty of 1792 to the East India Company. It is watered by the Kodavar, Mageri, and other streams, and contains also 1542 tanks, with abundance of fish. A pearl-bearing mussel is said to have been once found here. Among the

vegetable products are enumerated 'croton, sarsaparilla, and senna, the last equal to that brought from Egypt.' The ironworks at Gútum and Kalampetti were once of considerable importance. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; number of police circles, 15; strength of regular police, 122 men. Land revenue, £35,446. Chief town, DINDIGAL.

Dindigal (*Dindú-kal*, 'The Rock of Dindu,' an Asura or demon).—Town in the Dindigal *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 21′ 39″ N., long. 78° 0′ 17″ E. Number of houses, 2115. Population (1881) 14,182, namely, Hindus, 10,484; Muhammadans, 1601; and Christians, 2097; about 15 per cent. of the whole are weavers, 18 per cent. traders, and 13 per cent. agriculturists. Formerly the Christians lived in a separate quarter, their houses being distinguished by a cross on the roof. Their priest was a native of Malabár, subject ecclesiastically to the Bishop of Cannanore. Situated 880 feet above the sea, about 54 miles from Kodáikanal, the sanitarium on the Palani Hills, and 40 from Madura. Dindigal is connected by railway with the chief towns of the Presidency. The staples of local trade are hides, tobacco, coffee, and cardamoms, for the export of which the system of roads radiating from the town afford exceptional facilities. The silks and muslins manufactured here had once a high repute, as had also the blankets made from 'Carumba' wool. As the head-quarters of the Sub-division, Dindigal contains the courts of European as well as native officials, police and telegraph stations, travellers' bungalow, school, dispensary, and post-office. There are two churches, the one Protestant and the other Roman Catholic. The municipal revenue for 1882–83 was £1173, the incidence of taxation being 1s. per head of the population.

Dindigal was formerly the capital of an independent Province, which nominally formed part of the Madura kingdom. The fort, built on a remarkable wedge-shaped rock 1223 feet above the sea, to the west of the town, remains in good preservation, having been occupied by a British garrison until 1860. As a strategical point of great natural strength, commanding the passes between Madura and Coimbatore, its possession has always been keenly contested. Between 1623 and 1659 it was the scene of many encounters between the Maráthás and the Mysore and Madura troops, the *pálegár* of Dindigal holding at that time feudal authority over eighteen neighbouring chieftains. Chánda Sáhib, the Maráthás, and the Mysore troops occupied the fort in turn, and during the intervals in which no greater power was in possession, the strongest local chief made it his head-quarters. In 1755, however, Haidar Alí garrisoned Dindigal, and, while still ostensibly the faithful soldier of Mysore, used it as the basis of his schemes for distant conquest and self-aggrandisement, subduing

in succession the powerful *pálegárs* of Madura, and annexing the greater part of that District, as well as Coimbatore, to his fief. As the gate to Coimbatore from the south, the fort proved, in the wars with Haidar, a serious obstacle to the operations of the British troops at Trichinopoli and Madura. It was taken by the British in 1767, lost again in 1768, retaken in 1783, given up to Mysore by the treaty of Mangalore in 1784, recaptured on the next outbreak of war in 1790, and finally ceded to the East India Company by the treaty of 1792.

Dindivaram (*Tindivaram*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Area, 844 square miles, of which about four-fifths are cultivated or cultivable, yielding a revenue of £54,655. Number of villages, 564; number of houses, 33,559. Population (1881) 264,261, namely, Hindus, 248,377; Muhammadans, 5888; Christians (native Roman Catholics), 6369; 'others,' 3627. The *táluk* contains 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 13; regular police, 116 men. Twenty-two miles distant from Dindivaram, the chief town, lies Merkanam, a small sub-port with little or no trade. The South Indian Railway runs through the *táluk* from north to south for about 17 miles, with 3 railway stations. Chief places, Dindivaram and Gingi.

Dindori.—Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by Kalvan and the Saptáshring hills; on the east by Chándor and Niphád; on the south by Násik Sub-division; and on the west by the Sahyádri hills and Peint. Area, 529 square miles; number of villages, 128. Population (1881) 72,290, namely, 36,052 males and 36,238 females. Density of population, 137 persons to the square mile. Hindus number 70,165; Muhammadans, 1210; 'others,' 915. Most of the Sub-division is hilly. In the north and west there are only a few cart tracks, and travelling is difficult. A fair road leads to Balsár through the Sával pass, and to Kalvan through the Aivan pass. Rainfall abundant; climate in April and May healthy, in other months feverish. Average rainfall for 12 years ending 1881, 26 inches. The main stream is the Kádva, used as well as the Bángangá for irrigation. In 1880–81 there were 6886 holdings in the Sub-division, with an average extent of 30·5 acres, and paying an average rental of £2, 2s. 6d. The area under actual cultivation was 153,287 acres; 37,195 acres were under wheat; 23,399 acres under *nágli* (Eleusine corocana); 14,592 acres under *bájra;* other crops, rice, pulses, and Bombay hemp. The Sub-division contains 2 criminal courts; 1 police circle (*thána*); regular police, 26 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 150; land revenue, £15,387.

Dindori.—Chief town of the Dindori Sub-division, Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 2794. Situated about 15 miles north of Násik. Besides the ordinary sub-divisional revenue and

police offices, the town is provided with a post-office and dispensary. In 1881, the number of patients treated was 4500.

Dingarh Kiner.—Village in Sirmur (Sarmor) State, Punjab. Lat. 30° 44′ N., long. 77° 21′ E. Stands on a picturesque site, in the gorge traversed by the route from Náhan to Rájgarh. Northwards, it looks towards the Chaur (Chor) mountain; southwards, along the valley of the Jalál river. Well-built flat-roofed houses, arranged in rows on the solid limestone ledges of the mountain in its rear. The surrounding country, though rocky, contains some fertile spots, which produce luxuriant crops of wheat.

Dingi.—Fort (with walls 15 feet high) in Khairpur Native State, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 26° 52′ N., long. 68° 40′ E. The rendezvous of the forces of the Mírs in 1843. Water-supply abundant.

Dingier (pronounced Düng-yeh).—Range of mountains in the Khási and Jáintia Hills District, Assam. The highest peak is 6400 feet above sea-level. The range takes its name from a mythical tree (Dung-tree), which, according to Khási legend, grew here in ancient times and reached up to heaven. The fable says that the tree was destroyed by God on account of the impiety of men who essayed to invade heaven by climbing up its branches.

Diodar.—State in the Pálanpur Agency, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DEODAR.

Dipálpur.—*Tahsíl* of Montgomery District, Punjab. Area, 956 square miles, about one-third being under cultivation, one-half of which is irrigated by canals. The remainder consists for the most part of desert waste, portions of which are being slowly reclaimed under the influence of settled Government. Population (1881) 154,590, namely, males 83,549, and females 71,041; average density, 162 persons per square mile. Muhammadans numbered 118,126; Hindus, 30,379; Sikhs, 6068; 'others,' 17. Revenue, £24,107. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and an honorary magistrate, who preside over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of police circles, 4; strength of regular police, 57 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 147.

Dipálpur.—Ancient and decayed town in Montgomery District, Punjab; head-quarters of the Dipálpur *tahsíl.* Situated upon the old bank of the Beas (Biás), 17 miles from the railway station of Okhára and 28 miles north-east of Pákpattan. Population (1881) 3435, namely, Muhammadans, 2124; Hindus, 1194; Sikhs, 113; and 'others,' 4; number of houses, 639. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1882-83 of £243; expenditure, £248. Dipálpur, now an insignificant village, once formed the capital of the Northern Punjab under the Pathán Emperors of Delhi; and even as late as the 16th century, Bábar mentions it as the sister city of Lahore. General Cunningham attributes its foundation to Rájá Deva Pál,

whose date is lost in immemorial antiquity. Tradition, however, ascribes the origin of Dipálpur to one Bíja Chánd, a Kshatriyá, from whose son it derived its earliest name of Srípur. Old coins of the Indo-Scythian kings have been frequently discovered upon the site; and General Cunningham believes that the mound on which the village stands may be identified with the Daidala of Ptolemy. Firoz Tughlak visited the city in the 14th century, and built a large mosque outside the walls, besides drawing a canal from the Sutlej to irrigate the surrounding lands. At the time of Timúr's invasion, Dipálpur ranked second to Multán (Mooltan) alone, and contained, according to popular calculation, the symmetrical number of 84 towers, 84 mosques, and 84 wells. At the present day, only a single inhabited street runs between the two gates. A high ruined mound on the south-west, connected with the town by a bridge of three arches, probably marks the site of the ancient citadel. The walls apparently completed a circuit of 2½ miles, but suburbs stretched around in every direction, and may still be traced by straggling mounds and fields strewn with bricks. The decay of the town must be attributed to the drying up of the old Beas (Biás), after which event many of the inhabitants migrated to Haidarábád (Hyderábád) in the Deccan. The restoration of the Khánwa Canal, since the British annexation, has partially revived the prosperity of Dipálpur as a local trade centre. *Tahsíli*, police station, *sarái*.

Dipálpur.—Town in Indore (Holkar's territory), Central India; situated in lat. 22° 51′ N., and long. 75° 35′ E., on the route from Mhow (Mau) to Neemuch (Nímach), 27 miles north-west of the former, and 128 south-east of the latter. A tank to the east of the town irrigates a large area of ground in the neighbourhood.

Dipla.—*Táluk* in the Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 16′ to 24° 57′ 15″ N., and long. 69° 5′ 30″ to 69° 45′ E. Population (1881) 17,114, namely, males 9498, and females 7616, dwelling in 4 villages and occupying 2987 houses. Hindus number 2291; Muhammadans, 11,548; Sikhs, 13; and aboriginal tribes, 3262. Area under cultivation, 15,804 acres. Revenue (1881–82) £3383, of which £3332 was derived from imperial and £51 from local sources.

Dipla.—Chief town in Dipla *táluk*, Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 28′ N., long. 69° 37′ 30″ E. Population (1881) under 2000. The municipal revenue in 1873–74 was £78, but the municipality was abolished in 1878, on the introduction into Sind of Bombay Act vi. of 1873. Head-quarters of a *múkhtiárkar*. Ruined fort, built about 1790.

Dirápur.—*Tahsíl* of Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* DERAPUR.

Dísa (*Deesa*).—Town and cantonment in Pálanpur State, Gujarát,

Bombay Presidency; situated on the river Bánas, in lat. 24° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 12′ 30″ E., about 301 miles north-west of Mau (Mhow), 251 west by south of Nímach (Neemuch), and 390 north by west of Bombay. Population (1881) 8376, namely, Hindus, 5357; Muhammadans, 2455; 'others,' 564. Anciently the town was called Farídábád. The British cantonment (containing 4546 out of the total population) is stationed on the left bank of the Banás, 3 miles north-east of the native town. The force consisted in 1880 of a regiment of Native cavalry, a regiment of Native infantry, a British regiment, and a battery of artillery. A Brigadier-General holds command. Post and telegraph offices. Dísa is surrounded with a wall and towers, now in ruins. In former times it successfully resisted the attacks of the Gáekwár of Baroda and of the Rádhanpur forces.

Disaun.—River of Central India.—*See* DHASAN.

Disoi (*Disai*).—River in Sibságar District, Assam; rising in the Nágá Hills, and flowing northwards into the Gela *bhíl*, which communicates with the Brahmaputra near Nigiriting. This river formerly discharged itself into the Brahmaputra direct at Kokilámúkh, but has latterly changed its course. On its left bank is JORHAT, the most important mart in the District, but its importance as a river port has much diminished since the change in the course of the Disoi. Goods landed at Kukilámúkh have to be conveyed to Jorhát on carts; but a tramway is now (1882) under construction from Jorhát to Gohámgáon, a mile distant from Dinágáon on the Brahmaputra, which is a stopping-place for steamers in the rainy season.

Diu.—An island forming portion of the Portuguese possessions in Western India; situated in lat. 20° 43′ 20″ N., and long. 71° 2′ 30″ E., and separated by a narrow channel through a considerable swamp from the southern extremity of the peninsula of Káthiáwár in the Bombay Presidency. Its extreme length from east to west is about 7 miles, and its greatest breadth from north to south 2 miles. Area, 52·5 square kilometres. On the north the narrow channel separating it from the mainland is practicable only for fishing boats and small craft. On the south, the face of the island is a sandstone cliff washed by the sea, with deep water close beneath. Several groves of cocoa-nut trees are scattered over the island, and the hills attain an elevation of about 100 feet. It has a small but excellent harbour, where vessels can safely ride at anchor in 2 fathoms of water. The climate is generally dry and sultry, the soil barren, and water scarce. Agriculture is much neglected. The principal products are—wheat, millet, *náchni*, *bájra*, cocoa-nuts, and some kinds of fruit. The entire population of Diu island, according to the Census of 1881, numbered 6229 males and 6407 females; total, 12,636 persons, of whom 303 are Christians, including 4 Europeans.

The town of Diu stands at the east end of the island, the castle being in lat. 20° 42′ N., and long. 70° 59′ E.; distance from Nawa Bandar, 5 miles. In the days of its commercial prosperity, the town alone is said to have contained above 50,000 inhabitants. There are now 2929 houses, which, with very few exceptions, are poorly constructed. Some of the dwellings are provided with cisterns, of which there are altogether about 300, for the accumulation of rain-water. Diu, once so opulent and famous for its commerce, has now dwindled into utter insignificance. Not long ago, it maintained mercantile relations with several parts of India and Mozambique, but at present its trade is almost stagnant. The castle is separated from the other fortifications by a deep moat cut through the solid sandstone rock, through which the sea had free passage at one time, but now it only enters at the highest tides. Besides Diu town, there are 3 large villages on the island, namely—Monakbara, with a fort commanding the channel on the west; Bachawara, on the north; and Nagwa, with a small fort commanding the bay, on the south. The principal occupations of the inhabitants were formerly weaving and dyeing, and articles manufactured here were highly prized in foreign markets. At present, fishing affords the chief employment to the impoverished inhabitants. A few enterprising persons, however, emigrate temporarily to Mozambique, where they occupy themselves in commercial pursuits, and, after making a sufficient fortune, return to their native place to spend the evening of their lives. The total revenue of Diu in 1873-74 was £3802.

The Governor is the chief authority in both the civil and military departments, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is under a *Juiz de Direito*, with a small establishment to carry out his orders. For ecclesiastical purposes, the island is divided into two parishes, called *Se Matriz* and *Brancawara*, the patron saints being St. Paul and St. Andrew. Both parishes are under the spiritual jurisdiction of a dignitary styled the *Prior*, appointed by the Archbishop of Goa. The office of Governor is invariably filled by a European, other posts being bestowed on natives of Goa. The public force consisted in 1874 of 97 soldiers, including officers. The present fortress of Diu was reconstructed, with several later improvements, after the siege of 1545, by Dom Joao de Castro. It is an imposing structure, situated on the extreme east of the island, and defended by several pieces of cannon, some of which are made of bronze, and appear to be in good preservation. It is surrounded by a permanent bridge and entered by a gateway, which bears a Portuguese inscription, and is defended by a bastion called St. George. Towards the west of the fortress lies the town of Diu, divided into two quarters, the pagan and the Christian. The former comprehends

two-thirds of the total area, and is intersected by narrow and crooked roads, lined with houses. Besides the villages of the island already named, the Portuguese possess the village of Gogola, towards the north, in the Káthiáwár peninsula, and the fort of Simbor, conquered in 1722, and situated in an islet about 12 miles distant from the town.

Diu town was formerly embellished with several magnificent edifices, some of which are still in existence. Of these the most noteworthy is the college of the Jesuits, erected in 1601, and now converted into a cathedral, called *Se Matriz*. Of the former convents, that of St. Francis is used as a military hospital; that of St. John of God, as a place of burial; that of St. Dominic is in ruins. The parochial hall of the once beautiful church of St. Thomas serves as a place of meeting for the municipal chamber. The mint, where, in the days of the greatest prosperity of the Portuguese, money of every species used to be coined, is now gradually falling into decay. The arsenal, once so renowned, contains a few insignificant military stores. Besides these buildings, there are the Governor's palace, a prison, and a school. The Hindus possess 10 small temples, and the Muhammadans 2 mosques, one of which is in good condition.

Owing to the great advantages which the position of Diu afforded for trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf, the Portuguese were fired from an early period with the desire of becoming masters of this island; but it was not until the time of Nuno da Cunha that they succeeded in obtaining a footing in it. When Bahádur Sháh, King of Gujarát, was attacked by the Mughal Emperor Humáyún, he concluded a defensive alliance with the Portuguese, allowing them to construct, in 1535, a fortress in the island, and garrison it with their own troops. This alliance continued till 1536, when both parties began to suspect each other of treachery. In a scuffle which took place on his return from a Portuguese ship, whither he had proceeded on a visit to Nuno da Cunha, the Gujarát monarch met his death in 1537. In the following year, the fortress was besieged by Muhammad III., nephew of Bahádur Sháh; but the garrison, commanded by Antonio de Silveira, foiled the attempts of the enemy, and compelled him to raise the siege. Subsequently, in 1545, Diu was again closely invested by the same ruler; but was obstinately defended by the gallant band within, under the command of Dom Joao Mascarewas. While the Muhammadans were still under the walls, Dom Joao de Castro landed in the island with large reinforcements, and immediately marching to the relief of the place, totally routed the army of the King of Gujarát in a pitched battle. This heroic defence, and the signal victory gained by Castro, which form a brilliant page in the annals of the Portuguese empire in the East, were followed by the acquisition of the entire island. In

1670, a small armed band of the Arabs of Muscat surprised and plundered the fortress, retiring to their country with the booty they had acquired. Since this event, nothing worthy of note has occurred in connection with the Portuguese settlement.

Diví Point.—A low headland in the Bandar *táluk* (Masulipatam), Kistna District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 57′ 30″ N., and long. 81° 14′ E., at the mouth of one of the branch outlets of the Kistna river, and surrounded by shoal flats for 6 miles south and east, the edge of the shoal sometimes extending 5 or 6 leagues out to sea. A dioptric light on a column 43 feet high marks the danger. 'Diví False Point' stands 16½ miles south-west by west of 'Diví Point.'

Diwála.—Village in Chándá District, Central Provinces.—*See* DEWALA.

Diwálgáon.—Village in Chándá District, Central Provinces.—*See* DEWALGAON.

Diwálgáon Rájá.—Town in Buldáná District, Berár.—*See* DEULGAON RAJA.

Diwálghát.—Town in Buldáná District, Berár.—*See* DEULGHAT.

Diwáliá.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DEWALIA.

Diwalwárá.—Village in Wardhá, Central Provinces.—*See* DEWALWARA.

Diwalwárá.—Ruined town in Ellichpur District, Berár.—*See* DEWALWARA.

Diwángirí.—Village in the north of Kamrúp District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 51′ N., and long. 91° 27′ E., 8 miles from the plains, on the lower range of the Bhután Hills. The village contains an old fort, formerly occupied by a Bhutiá governor, known as the Diwángirí Rájá. A British detachment received a check at Diwángirí during the Bhután War of 1864–65, and the tract to which the fort belongs was annexed to British territory at the conclusion of the campaign. It is inhabited permanently by a few Bhutiá settlers. In the cold weather the place is visited by Bhutiás from beyond the frontier in considerable numbers, who bring with them large herds of magnificent cattle to feed on the rich pasturage of the lower ranges of hills and the adjacent plains. They also trade with the villages in the neighbourhood, and with Márwárí and other shopkeepers who establish themselves there for the season. The chief articles of import are blankets, ponies, yak's tails, knives, and dogs, which are exchanged for rice, dried fish, coarse silks, etc. A large fair is held annually at Diwángirí in the cold season.

Diwás.—Native State in Central India.—*See* DEWAS.

Diying.—River in North Cachar, Assam, rising in the Bárel range, and flowing a generally northerly course till it falls into the Kopili

shortly after the latter stream issues from the hills. The Diying for a considerable portion of its course formed till recently the western boundary of the Nágá Hills District; but by a notification issued in July 1882, another boundary drawn farther east was fixed between North Cachar and the Nágá Hills.

Doáb (*Duáb*, or two rivers).—A tract of country in the North-Western Provinces, comprising the long and narrow strip of land between the Ganges and the Jumna, from the Siwálik range south-eastward. The name properly applies to any wedge-shaped tract enclosed by confluent rivers, but it is especially employed to designate this great alluvial plain, the granary of Upper India. The Doáb includes the British Districts of SAHARANPUR, MUZAFFARNAGAR, MEERUT, BULANDSHAHR, ALIGARH, parts of MUTTRA, and AGRA, ETAH, MAINPURI, the greater portion of ETAWAH, and FARUKHABAD, CAWNPUR, FATEHPUR, and part of ALLAHABAD,—all of which see separately. Naturally a rich tract, composed of the detritus brought down from the Himálayan system by its great boundary rivers, the Doáb has been fertilized and irrigated by three magnificent engineering works, the Ganges, the Lower Ganges, and the Eastern Jumna Canals. Throughout its entire length it presents an almost unbroken sheet of cultivation, varied only by a few ravines along the banks of the principal streams and their tributaries, or by occasional patches of barren *úsar* plain, covered with the white saline efflorescence known as *reh*. It supports a dense population, most of whom derive their subsistence from agriculture. ALLAHABAD, CAWNPUR, MEERUT, and ALIGARH are the chief commercial centres, and the principal stations of the civil and military authorities. The East Indian Railway enters the Doáb at Allahábád, and passes through the heart of the tract, by Cawnpur, Etáwah, and Alígarh, to Delhi on the opposite shore of the Jumna. A branch line also runs across the river to Agra. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway continues the East Indian line from Gházíábád Junction, nearly opposite Delhi, by Meerut, Muzaffarnagar, and Sahâranpur, to Ambála (Umballa) and the other Punjab towns. Other lines of railway to connect with the main lines, namely, the Háthras and Muttra, and the Cawnpur and Farukhábád lines, have been lately constructed as provincial light railways, on the metre gauge, through this tract. An extension of the Cawnpur and Farukhábád line to Háthras, 103 miles in length, has been sanctioned by the Secretary of State; and a further line is projected from Bareli to Kásganj, but not yet (1883) commenced. The Doáb thus possesses unrivalled means of communication, both by land and water, with all the neighbouring tracts; and its surplus grain can be transported in almost every direction, upon any pressure of scarcity or famine. Three principal divisions are commonly recognised; the Upper Doáb, from Sahâranpur to Alígarh; the Middle Doáb, from Muttra and Etah to

Etáwah and Farukhábád; and the Lower Doáb, from Cawnpur to the junction of the two rivers at Allahábád. For history, inhabitants, and other particulars, see the various Districts separately.

Doába Dáúdzai.—*Tahsíl* of Pesháwar District, Punjab. Area, 182 square miles. Population (1881) 68,902, namely, males 37,955, and females 30,947; average density, 378 persons per square mile. Muhammadans numbered 66,754; Hindus, 1954; Sikhs, 185; 'others,' 9. The *tahsíl* includes two tracts, formerly constituting separate *tahsíls*, Doába to the north-east, and Dáúdzai to the south-west. The Adizai, or northern branch of the Kábul or Nágamán river, takes off near Fort Michni at the point of its entrance into the District, while the Sháh Alim or southern branch leaves it a little lower down; both rejoin the main stream at its junction with the Swát river. Doába is the tract between the Swát and Adizai rivers; while Dáúdzai includes the area between the Adizai and Sháh Alim, as well as a triangle of land abutting on the latter. Doába is occupied by the Gigiáni Patháns, and contains the two forts of Michni and Shankargarh. The Halimzai Mohmands have a large settlement at Panjpao, and the Tarakzai Mohmands a similar one near Fort Michni. Both clans belong to the independent Mohmands beyond our border, and pay merely a nominal revenue. Dáúdzai is occupied by the Dáúdzai Patháns. The *tahsílí* is located at the village of Náhuki between the Kábul river and its Sháh Alim branch. The old Doába *tahsílí* at Shabkadr has been abolished. Irrigation by canals from the Kábul and Swát rivers make the tract very fertile. Revenue (1883), £16,676. The administrative officer is a *tahsíldár*, who presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 38 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 180.

Dobbili.—*Zamíndárí* in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* BOBBILI.

Dobhi.—Village in Gádarwárá *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2117, namely, Hindus, 2007; Muhammadans, 35; Jains, 11; and persons professing aboriginal religions, 64.

Dodábetta ('*The Big Mountain;*' *Toda-Nanc*—Petmartz).—The highest peak of the Nílgiri mountains, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 25′ N., long. 76° 40′ E.; height, 8760 feet above the sea.

Dod-ballápur.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Bangalore District, Mysore State. Area, 292 square miles. Population (1881) 44,435, namely, 21,094 males and 22,531 females. Hindus number 42,637; Muhammadans, 1783; and Christians, 15. Revenue (1882–83), £13,209, or 2s. 10d. per cultivated acre. In 1883, the *táluk* contained 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 64 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 314.

Dod-ballápur (*Great Ballápur*, to distinguish it from CHIK-BALLAPUR).—Town in Bangalore District, Mysore State, on the right bank of the Arkavatí river. Lat. 13° 13′ 40″ N., long. 77° 22′ 50″ E.; 27 miles by road north-west of Bangalore. Population (1881) 7032, namely, 6197 Hindus, 831 Muhammadans, and 4 Christians. The fort was built in the 14th century by one of the refugees of the Morasu Wokkal tribe, who also founded Devanhalli. In 1638 it was captured by a Bijápur army under Ran-dullá Khán; and after forty years' possession by that power, was surrendered to the Maráthás. About 1700 it was re-taken by the Mughals, by whom it was entrusted to a succession of rulers as part of the Province of Sira, until annexed to Mysore by Haidar Alí in 1761. In the fort are the remains of several fine buildings and tanks. Cotton cloth of good quality and great variety is woven. A weekly fair, held on Thursdays, is attended by 3000 people. Head-quarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Dodderi. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State. Area, 851 square miles. Population (1881) 65,767, namely, 33,508 males and 32,259 females. Hindus number 63,355; Muhammadans, 2401; and Christians, 11. A wide and level plain, formerly including the *táluk* of Molkamuru, watered by the Vedavati river. Products—rice, *ragí*, *jola*, wheat, tobacco, gram, and fruits.

Dodderi.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State. Latitude 14° 17′ 50″ N., longitude 76° 45′ 5″ E. Population (1881) 658. Among the local manufactures are cotton cloth, silk scarves, *kamblís* or country blankets, carts, agricultural implements, brass utensils, and various articles of bamboo and leather. The industry of papermaking has died out.

Dodka.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency, ruled by three chiefs called Pátels or head-men. Area, 2½ square miles; estimated revenue, £250, of which £110 is payable as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dohad.—Sub-division of the Pánch Mahális District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by Jhálod; on the east by Jambua; on the south by Central India territory; and on the east by Rewá Kántha. Area, 600 square miles; contains 2 towns and 218 villages. Population (1881) 100,639, namely, 50,231 males and 50,408 females, dwelling in 18,499 houses. Hindus number 30,044; Muhammadans, 5797; 'others,' 64,798. The Sub-division is a compact, circular, and well-wooded tract; hilly and picturesque throughout. Occasional frosts in the cold weather; average rainfall for the 12 years ending 1877, 28·7 inches. The Anás river flows along the eastern boundary. Several large reservoirs for the storage of water. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circle (*thánás*), 1; regular police, 262 men. Land revenue, £10,939.

Dohad.—Chief town of the Sub-division of Dohad in the District of the Pánch Mahály, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 22° 53′ N., and longitude 74° 19′ E.; 77 miles north-east of Baroda. Population (1881) 12,394, namely, 5845 Hindus, 4204 Muhammadans, 445 Jains, 5 Pársís, 3 Christians, and 1892 'others.' As the name Dohad (or 'two boundaries') implies, the town is situated on the line separating Málwá on the east from Gujarát (Guzerát) on the west. It is a place of considerable traffic, commanding one of the main lines of communication between Central India and the seaboard. A metalled and bridged road, 43 miles long, connects the town with the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway at Godhra. The strongly-built fort dates from the reign of the Gujarát king, Ahmad I. (1412–1443). It was repaired by Muzaffar II. (1513–1526), also a Gujarát monarch, and is said to have been again restored under the orders of the Emperor Aurangzeb (1658–1707). The town contains a sub-judge's and *mámlatdár's* court, post-office, civil hospital, and the District jail. In addition to the unarmed police, the Gujarát Bhíl corps, 530 strong, is quartered at Dohad. This regiment is not on the rolls of the army, but is commanded by the superintendent and assistant superintendent of police. About half the strength of the corps is employed on outpost duty. Municipal income (1882–83), £581; incidence of taxation per head of municipal population (11,472), 1s.

Doharighat.—Town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces; lies in lat. 26° 16′ N., and long. 83° 33′ 30″ E., on the bank of the Gogra, at the point where the roads from Gházípur and Azamgarh to Gorakhpur cross the river. Population (1881) 3634, namely, Hindus, 3141; and Muhammadans, 493; number of houses, 518. For police and conservancy purposes, a small municipal income is raised under the provisions of Act XX. of 1856, amounting in 1881–82 to £43. First-class police station, cattle pound, and sub-post-office. Extensive through traffic to the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Great bathing festival on the full moon of the month of Kártik.

Dolphin's Nose.—Promontory in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 17° 41′ N., longitude 83° 17′ E. Elevation above the sea, 1500 feet. The southern point of Vizagapatam harbour, forming, with the ruined castle on it, a conspicuous landmark to mariners. The light formerly shown here was destroyed in the cyclone of 1876, and has not been replaced.

Domáriaganj.—North-western *tahsíl* of Basti District, North-Western Provinces. Traversed by the river Rápti, and consisting chiefly of a marshy and water-logged submontane plain. Area, 583 square miles, of which 410 are cultivated. Population (1881) 280,254, namely, Hindus, 211,852; Muhammadans, 68,399; and 'others,' 3. Number of towns and villages, 1092; land revenue, £26,178; total

Government revenue, £29,474; rental paid by cultivators, £69,170; incidence of Government revenue, 1s. 7¼d. per acre. The *tahsíl* contains 1 criminal court and 4 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 42 men, besides 310 village watchmen.

Domel.—An island in the Mergui Archipelago, between lat. 11° 26′ and 11° 28′ N., and long. 98° 2′ and 98° 11′ E., forming a portion of Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It lies 3 or 4 miles west of Kissering, the navigable channel between them, however, being very narrow. Extreme length from north to south, about 28 miles; breadth from east to west, about 4 miles.

Domeli.—Agricultural town in Jhelum (Jehlam) *tahsíl*, Jhelum District, Punjab. Lat. 33° 1′ N., long. 73° 24′ E.; population (1881) 4679. Head-quarters of a police circle (*tháná*).

Dommasundra.—Town in Anekal *táluk*, Bangalore District, Mysore State. Population (1881) 1835. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £54.

Donabyú.—Township in Thungwa District, Irawadi (Irrawaddy) Division, British Burma. It lies principally on the right bank of the Irawadi, and was formerly a part of Henzada District; protected from inundation by extensive embankments along the west bank of the river. Population (1881) 43,760; gross revenue, £10,856, of which £7827 was derived from the land-tax, £4080 from the capitation-tax, and £4495 from the fishery-tax.

Donabyú.—Town on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), 35 miles south of Henzada, in Thungwa District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Lat. 17° 15′ N., long. 95° 40′ E. The inhabitants in 1881 numbered 3273; houses, 526; revenue (1881–82), £483. Police station, court-house, and *bázár*. In the first Burmese war, after the capture of Rangoon, the Burmese commander-in-chief, Bandúla, entrenched himself in Donabyú with a force of 15,000 men; but he was killed by the bursting of a shell when the British batteries opened fire on the town, and the Burmese retreated. During the second war, the Burmese general evacuated the place before the arrival of the English; but shortly after this, Maung Myat Thún made it his head-quarters. He was routed in 1853 by a detachment under Captain Loch, R.N., and later on was finally overtaken by Sir John Cheape and killed. From this time Donabyú remained in undisputed possession of the British.

Dondí Lohárá.—*Zamíndárí* or estate attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Area, 364 square miles. Population (1881) 30,134, namely, males 15,313, and females 14,821, residing in 120 villages, and inhabiting 10,440 houses. Average density of population, 82·8 persons per square mile.

Dongargarh.—Town in the south-east of the Kháiragarh State, attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 11′ 30″ N., long. 80° 50′ E. Formerly an important town, and still the seat of a

large weekly market, and a station on the Nágpur-Chhatísgarh railway. Population (1881) 5543, namely, Hindus, 4391; Kabírpanthís, 391; Satnámís, 48; Muhammadans, 322; Christians, 3; Jains, 13; and persons professing aboriginal religions, 375. The remains of the fort, which must have been a place of great strength, stretch along the north-east base of a detached rocky hill, about 4 miles in circuit, near the village. The spurs of the hill, which is very steep and covered with large boulders, were connected by walls of rude and massive masonry, inside which tanks were dug, while a deep fosse ran beyond the walls. On its other faces the hill is almost inaccessible, and no works can be traced; nor have any remains of buildings been found, although the fort could only be held by a large garrison. The village contains a good school; also a dispensary, post-office, and a *zamíndárí* police station.

Dongarpur.—Native State in Rájputána.—*See* DUNGARPUR.

Dongartál.—Village in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 36′ N., long. 79° 24′ E. Situated on the old road between Seoní and Nágpur. Celebrated for its breed of cattle, and inhabited by Gaulis. Fine tank and ruins of an old fort.

Dorandá.—Military cantonment in Lohárdagá District, Bengal; situated to the south of Ránchí, the civil station of the District. Lat. 23° 21′ 31″ N., long. 85° 22′ 5″ E. It has a parade-ground and a rifle-range, with a small *bázár*. Military force quartered here (September 1883), the 14th Regiment of Madras Native Infantry. A rural municipality under Act xx. of 1856.

Dorka (*Dodka*).—The smallest of the 3 *Mehwásís* under the Rewá Kántha Agency, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. The *Mehwásí* consists of 3 estates, of one village each; namely Dorka, with an area of 2½ square miles and a revenue of £240; Ráeka, area 2½ square miles, revenue £150; and Anghar, area 3½ square miles, revenue £500. Dorka contains one school, and a *thánadár* resides here, with the powers of a third-class magistrate, and civil jurisdiction in suits to the extent of £100. Population of the *Mehwásí* (1881) 4576, or 538 persons per square mile. The estates lie on the left bank of the Mahi river, between Kaira District and Baroda territory.

Dornal Ghát.—A pass over the Eastern Gháts, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 14° 41′ N., longitude 79° 14′ E. The main road to Cuddapah (Kadapa) from Nellore and the coast passes through it. The road from Nellore to the Ghát is 58 miles in length, and the distance beyond to Cuddapah is 52 miles.

Dosa (*Dausa*).—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána, situated on the road from Agra to Ajmere. Lat. 26° 51′ N., long. 76° 23′ E. Population (1881) 7384, of whom 6057 are Hindus, 1139 Muhammadans, and 118 unspecified. A town of considerable size, built on one side of a rocky

hill, nearly four miles in circumference, and containing a State prison. The town is in a decaying state, and is surrounded by a half-ruined wall. There is a station of the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway about half a mile north-west of the town; and about 500 yards from the station is a travellers' bungalow.

Double Island.—A small island about 12 miles south of Amherst Point, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is raised high above the sea, and lies in lat. 15° 52′ 30″ N., and long. 97° 36′ 30″ E. On it stands a lighthouse containing a dioptric fixed light of the first order, with a catadioptric mirror visible 19 miles, and first exhibited in December 1865. Its object is to guide ships making for Maulmain, and to prevent their running up the Sittaung river to certain destruction.

Doulatábád.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KRISHNAGIRI.

Doung-gyí.—Town in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; situated on the Bassein river, in lat. 17° 22′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 8′ E., surrounded by an open waste country, which is covered with grass and tree forest, and liable to inundation. The inhabitants, 760 in number in 1881, residing in 112 houses, are chiefly employed in fishing and in the manufacture of clay pots for salt-boiling.

Dowlaishvaram (*Dowlaishwar; Davaleshwaram*, or 'White Siva'). —Town in Rájámahendri (Rájáhmundry) *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 16° 56′ 35″ N., longitude 81° 48′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 8002, namely, Hindus, 7602; Muhammadans, 260; and Christians, 140. Situated 4 miles south of Rájámahendri, at the bifurcation of the Godávari river, where the great anicut, 12 feet high and 1650 yards in length, has been constructed at a cost of £151,707. The anicut extends to Pichika island. During its construction, which was commenced in 1847, Dowlaishvaram, as the head-quarters of the sappers and miners and a large engineering staff, was a place of much importance. At present it is the permanent station of the District engineering staff; the Government workshop established here turns out a large quantity of work for the Public Works Department. The houses of the former European residents, built on the hills in the neighbourhood, are now in ruins. Quarries of good building-stone are worked to the extent of 10,000 cubic yards annually, and the demand appears to be increasing year by year. During the wars between the Síthápatis of Rájámahendri and the Muhammadan rulers of Ellore, in the 15th and 16th centuries, Dowlaishvaram was the usual crossing-point of the contending armies, and the scene, therefore, of frequent struggles. At present the town is connected with the coast at several points by numerous navigable canals of the Godávari irrigation system; and also with Madras through the Kistna system and the Buckingham Canal.

Distance from Cocanada, by the shortest canal, 32 miles.—*See* GODAVARI RIVER.

Dowlatábád.—Town in the Nizám's Dominions, Haidarábád.—*See* DAULATABAD.

Doyang.—River in Assam.—*See* DAYANG.

Dravida (*Dravira*).—A division of the Indian Peninsula, ethnological and philological rather than geographical. It comprises India south of the Vindhyá range and the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, excepting those parts of the eastern coast where Uriya is the vernacular, and the Districts of Western India and the Deccan, where Gujaráthí and Maráthí are spoken. As early as 404 A.D., Dravida is spoken of (in the *Brihat Samhita* of Varaha Mihira) as being divided into Chola, Pandya, Kerála, Karnataka, Kalinga, and Andhra. Manu mentions the inhabitants, 'the Dravidas,' as outcasts and barbarians, *i.e.* not in communion with Bráhmans, nor incorporated into the Hindu community. Modern authorities assign twelve dialects to the division, the four chief being Támil, spoken in Pandya, Chola, and Eastern Kerála, *i.e.* throughout the central and southern Districts of Madras; Telugu, the language of the Kalinga and Andhra countries, or 'Telingána,' corresponding to the 'Northern Circars,' spoken by a population of 14½ millions; Malayálam, spoken in Western Kerála, *i.e.* Malabár, Travancore, and Cochin, the language of about 4 millions; and Kánarese, in 'Karnatika,' or Kánara, Mysore, and a few tracts of the Wynád and Coimbatore, comprising about 9 million inhabitants. Tulu is spoken round Mangalore by some 300,000 persons, and in Coorg by some 150,000. The other six 'uncultivated' dialects belong to some 2¼ millions of people, so that the entire division of 'Dravida' may be taken to include nearly 46 millions of inhabitants. The identification of the words *Dravida* and *Támil* (or Tamul) has been ingeniously proposed by a modern scholar, as also the identity of both with the Dimyrice of the Peutingerian tables and the Limyrice of Ptolemy. The great authority on the languages of Southern India is Bishop Caldwell's *Comparative Grammar.* As Dravida is a linguistic and not an administrative division, the above inadequate notice must suffice here.

Drúg.—*Tahsíl* or revenue Sub-division in Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 45′ 30″ to 21° 33′ N., and long. 80° 54′ to 80° 41′ E. Area, 1104 square miles, of which 789 square miles were cultivated in 1881, 241 square miles cultivable, and 74 square miles uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 250,363, namely, 122,592 males and 127,771 females, residing in 628 villages, and occupying 74,452 houses; average density, 226·8 persons per square mile. Amount of Government assessment, £13,075, or an average of 6¼d. per acre of cultivation. Rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £25,717, or an average

of 1s. 0¼d. per cultivated acre. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land per head of agricultural population, 6 acres.

Drúg.—Town in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Drúg *tahsíl*, lying in lat. 21° 11′ N., and long. 81° 21′ E., on the Great Eastern Road, 24 miles west of Ráipur town. Population (1881) 3797, namely, Hindus, 3300; Kabírpanthís, 73; Satnámí, 1; Jains, 34; Muhammadans, 191; and persons professing aboriginal religions, 198. The Maráthás made Drúg their base of operations in 1740–41, when they overran Chhatísgarh. Besides occupying the ancient fort, which is now dismantled, they formed an entrenched camp on the high ground on which the town stands, commanding a clear view of the surrounding country. Drúg manufactures excellent cotton cloth, and has a *tahsílí*, police station, town school, post-office, travellers' rest-house, and dispensary.

Duáb.—A long narrow wedge-shaped tract of country enclosed by two confluent rivers. The name is specially applied to designate the great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna.—*See* Doab.

Dúb.—Pass on the border between British territory and Kashmír State, Punjab, on the route from Attock to Kashmír by the Barámula road. Lat. 34° 17′ N., long. 73° 21′ E. Held by freebooters during the Sikh period, whom Harí Singh attacked and exterminated. Lies on the watershed dividing the feeders of the Kishangangá and the Jehlam (Jhelum) on the east, from those of the Indus on the west.

Dubári.—Large village in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Situated 4 miles south of the river Gogra (Ghagrá), nearly 26 miles east of the head-quarters of the Sagrí *tahsíl*, and 36 miles north-east of Azamgarh town; in lat. 26° 11′ 20″ N., and long. 83° 49′ 5″ E. The largest agricultural village in the District, with a population that has steadily increased from 4854 in 1865 to 7502 in 1881. In the latter year, Hindus numbered 6984, and Muhammadans 518. Area of town site, 138 acres. Markets for miscellaneous produce are held twice a week. Most of the village belongs to the heirs of a Mr. Venables, on whom it was conferred for gallant service during the Mutiny.

Dub-chi.—Valley and pass in Kashmír State, Punjab; situated in lat. 33° 45′ N., and long. 75° E., between the Fateh Panjál and Pír Panjál mountains, at an elevation of 11,800 feet above sea-level. Through it lies the route from the Punjab to Kashmír by Rájáwar. The Remdeara river takes its rise on the summit of the pass, and, flowing north-east, flows into the Jhelum (Jehlam). There is a *sarái* (rest-house) in the pass for the accommodation of travellers.

Dubláná.—Town in Búndí (Boondee) State, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 35′ N., long. 75° 41′ E.; 12 miles north of Búndí town. Scene of a battle fought in 1744 between the forces of the exiled Rájá of Búndí and of Jaipur (Jeypore), in which the former were defeated.

Dubrájpur.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 47′ 35″ N., long. 87° 25′ E. Contains a *munsif* or subordinate judge's court, and a police station; also a good market for English piece-goods, cloth, brass pots, sugar, lac, rice, and sweetmeats. Dubrájpur is surrounded by tanks, the banks of which are generally planted with fan-leaved (toddy) palms, yielding a spirituous liquor from their juice, which brings in a considerable revenue to Government. The supply of fish in the tanks is abundant. In the south of the town, huge picturesque rocks of granite and gneiss (composed of glassy quartz, pink and grey felspar, and black mica) crop up through the soil, covering an area of about one square mile. In the centre is a vast block of granite united to a mass of gneiss, which adheres to it at an angle of 45°. A good view of the surrounding country, with the Parasnáth mountain, Rájmahál, and Pánchet hills in the distance, can in clear weather be obtained from the summit of this rock, which is about 60 feet high. A flat-roofed temple has been built on one of these granite rocks, and the whole block is worshipped by the Bráhmans as Mahádeo.

Dúdhpur.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. The State contains an area of ¾ths of a square mile. The chief is a Rahtor Rájput. The revenue is estimated at £60, and tribute of £3 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Dúdhrej.—Petty State of Jháláwár *as* *pránt* or division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 2 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £1834; a tribute of £110 is paid to the British Government, and £9, 14s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Dúdú.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. Distant 41 miles west from Jaipur town. Contains a fort, and is surrounded by a mud wall. Dispensary and staging bungalow.

Duduyá.—One of the chief rivers of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; formed mainly by the junction of the Gayerkatá and Nanái, which streams, after uniting, flow in a south-easterly direction through the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí, passing into Kuch Behar territory at a village called Dakálikobá Hát. The Forest Department has a timber depôt on the east bank of the river where it is crossed by a ferry, up to which point it is navigable. Its principal tributaries are the Gulandi, the Kaluá or Rehti, Barabank, Demdema, and Tásátí, all of which rise in the Bhután Hills.

Dugári.—Town in Búndí (Boondee) State, Rájputána. Estimated population, 2000. Contains the largest sheet of artificially enclosed water in Búndí, with an area of about 3 square miles, known as Kanak-Ságar. Dugári is held in *jágír* by a relative of the chief, and has several temples, two belonging to the Jain community.

Dugriá.—Guaranteed *thákurate* or petty chiefship under the Bhopál Agency, Central India. On the settlement of Málwá, Rájá Khán, brother of the notorious Pindárí chief Chítu, was allowed an assignment of land in Shujáwalpur for his lifetime. But in 1825 he was assured that, in consideration of his past good conduct, the circumstances of his family would receive favourable consideration after his death. In accordance with this promise, at his death the estate was divided among his five sons. The third son received Dugriá.

Dujána.—One of the Native States, under the Government of the Punjab; situated between 28° 39′ 15″ and 28° 42′ 15″ N. lat., and between 76° 37′ and 76° 43′ E. long. Muhammad Sádat Alí Khán, the Nawáb of Dujána, comes of an Afghán stock. The estates of the family were originally granted to Abdul Samand Khán and his sons for life by Lord Lake, as a reward for service rendered. In 1806, the tenure was made perpetual by a *sanad* of the Governor-General, and several estates in Hariána District were added, which were afterwards exchanged for the villages of Dujána and Mehána in Rohtak. Dujána is about 37 miles west of Delhi. The chief holds his tenure on conditions which may be briefly described as fidelity to the British Government and military service when required. The force to be furnished on application is 200 horse. The territories of the Nawáb are 114 square miles in extent, with 28 villages and 2981 houses. Population (1881) 23,416, namely, males 12,525, and females 10,891; average density of population, 205 persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 18,102; and Muhammadans, 5314. The estimated revenue of the Nawáb is £6500. The principal products of the State are grain and opium. There is a force of cavalry and infantry, including police, amounting to 130 men.

Dulhí.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; 2 miles north-east of the Chauka river. Population (1881) 3778, namely, Hindus, 3360; and Muhammadans, 418. Formerly the residence of a large landholder, who was transported, and his estates confiscated, for disloyal conduct during the Mutiny.

Dúmagúdiem (*Dooma*).—Town in the Bhadráchalam *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 17° 48′ N., long. 80° 55′ E. Population (1881) 2121, chiefly Kois. Situated on the Godávari river, 15 miles above Bhadráchalam and 116 north of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry). Until recently the head-quarters of the Upper Godávari engineering works, and still the station of an overseer, with police establishment, telegraph office, and post-office. With the rest of the *táluk*, the town formed part of the Nizám's territory until 1860, when it was incorporated with the Central Provinces. In 1874 it was transferred to Madras. The 'first barrier,' or rocky obstruction to irrigation, on the Godávari is at Dúmagúdiem.—*See* GODAVARI RIVER.

Dum-Dum.—Sub-division of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated between 22° 34′ and 22° 41′ N. lat., and between 88° 26′ and 88° 31′ E. long. It consists of the single police circle (*thánd*) of Dum-Dum. Area, 24 square miles; number of villages, 43; houses, 6241. Population (1881) 31,578, namely, males 17,008, and females 14,570; average density, 1316 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·79; persons per village, 734; houses per square mile, 282; persons per house, 5. Hindus numbered 17,868; Muhammadans, 12,640; Christians, 1045; Buddhists, 6; and 'others,' 19. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 4 criminal courts. Strength of regular police, 72 men; village constables (*chaukídárs*), 36. The Bengal Central Railway runs through the Sub-division.

Dum-Dum (*Dam Damá*).—Town, municipality, and cantonment in Dum-Dum Sub-division, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 37′ 52″ N., long. 88° 27′ 51″ E.; 4½ miles north-east of Calcutta. Population (1881) 4223, including the troops. The force stationed here in 1883 consisted of the Royal Welsh Fusilier Regiment. The barracks are built of brick and are very commodious, with a *bázár* some distance from the lines. Dum-Dum is a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway; contains an English school. In Major Smyth's Report, referring to a period anterior to 1857, it is stated that Dum-Dum was the head-quarters of the artillery from 1783 until their removal to Meerut, a more central station, in 1853. At that date the town possessed a magazine and percussion-cap manufactory; barracks; European and native hospital; a large *bázár;* several clear-water tanks; and a Protestant church, containing monuments erected to the memory of Colonel Pearse, the first commandant of the artillery regiment, and of Captain Nicholl and the officers and men of the 1st troop, 1st brigade, Horse Artillery, who perished during the retreat from Kábul in 1841. The treaty by which the Nawáb of Bengal ratified the privileges of the British, and restored the settlements at Calcutta, Kásimbázár, and Dacca, was signed at Dum-Dum, February 6, 1757.

Dumká.—Sub-division and town in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal.—*See* NAYA DUMKA.

Dumrá Falls.—A succession of rapids in Hill Tipperah, Bengal; situated just below the point where the Cháimá and Ráimá unite to form the Gúmti. These rapids continue for a distance reckoned at a day's journey, and end in a picturesque cascade, which leaps into a pool whence the stream issues through a narrow gorge.

Dumráon.—Town and municipality in Shahábád District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 32′ 59″ N., long. 84° 11′ 42″ E. Station on the East Indian Railway. Population (1881) 17,429, namely, Hindus, 14,110; and Muhammadans, 3319; area of town site, 3393 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £551, of which £477 was derived from taxation,

or an average rate of taxation of $7\frac{1}{2}$d. per head of the population; expenditure, £671.

Dumráon.—Branch of the Arrah Canal in Sháhábád District, Bengal; forming a portion of the Soane (Són) system. It is $40\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, with 12 distributaries, and leaves the main canal at the 17th mile.

Dumurdah.—Town in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the Húglí river just above Nayá Sarái, in lat. 23° 2′ 15″ N., and long. 88° 28′ 50″ E. Formerly notorious for its gangs of river *dákáits*, and as the home of the ill-famed robber chief Biswanáth Bábu, who was at last betrayed by one of his comrades and hanged on the scene of his capture. Even as recently as 1845, it was said that 'people fear to pass by this place after sunset, and no boats are ever moored at its *ghát* even in broad daylight.'

Dún.—A range of hills in the north-west of Champáran District, Bengal; extending in a slightly south-easterly direction from the Rohuá *nadí* to the Achuí *nadí*, a distance of about 20 miles, the average breadth being 4 miles. It has been suggested by some that this range is adapted for tea cultivation; others consider the climate too dry. The Dún valley is inhabited by the aboriginal tribe of Thárus.

Dunal Ghát.—Pass over the Eastern Gháts, Nellore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* DORNAL GHAT.

Dundwáraganj.—Small trading town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the Saháwar and Patiálí road, 22 miles north-east of Etah. Lat. 27° 43′ 50″ N., long. 78° 59′ 34″ E. Area, 65 acres. Population (1881) 5692, namely, 2788 Hindus and 2804 Muhammadans. Consists of two separate villages, Dundwáraganj and Dundwára Khás, separated from each other by a strip of open country, but sufficiently close to one another for inclusion under a common title. The town derives its name from a colony of Dundiya Káyasths, established on the spot by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori in 1194 A.D., on the expulsion of a settlement of Kont Rájputs, who had previously owned the land. *Bázár*, market-place, *sarái*, school. The central roadway generally presents a busy scene, and the town, though small, contains many comparatively wealthy residents. Markets are held twice a week. For police and conservancy purposes, a small municipal income in the shape of a house-tax is (1882) levied under the provisions of the Chaukídárí Act (XX. of 1856). Dundwára Khás is an agricultural village, containing many large mud-built houses and enclosures belonging to Musalmán *zamíndárs*. Both villages are narrow and of no great size, but are situated on a well-raised site, and the short road which joins them is wide and metalled. A good unmetalled road connects the two villages with Patiálí and Saháwar.

Dungagalí (*Dungá Gálí*).—Small sanitarium in Abbottábád *tahsíl*, Hazára District, Punjab; composed of a few houses, or rather huts,

scattered over the southern slopes of the Mochpura Hill, belonging to Europeans, who visit it from Abbottábád and Murree during the summer. Staging bungalow and branch post-office.

Dúngarpur.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Agent to the Governor-General for the States of Rájputána. It extends from latitude 23° 31′ to 24° 3′ N., and from longitude 73° 37′ to 74° 16′ E. Its length from east to west is 40 miles, and its breadth from north to south 35 miles; total area, according to the Census of 1881, 1000 square miles. Bounded on the north by Udaipur (Oodeypore) State; on the east by Udaipur and the river Máhi, which separates it from the State of Bánswára; on the south and west by the Rewá Kántha and Mahi Kántha Agencies in Gujarát. The country consists for the most part of stony hills covered with low jungle of cactus, jujube trees, and a gum-producing tree called *salar* by the natives, together with several other varieties of shrubs and trees requiring neither a deep soil nor moisture. In the north and east of the State the landscape is wild and rugged, but towards the south-west border the harsher features are much softened, and for several miles the country resembles Gujarát in character and appearance. There are two or three large forest tracts, producing blackwood, ebony, and other valuable timber-trees. Of pasture-land, properly so called, there is scarcely any; and during the hot season the numerous cattle kept by the Bhíls are reduced to a miserable state of leanness. The cultivated area is almost entirely confined to the valleys and low ground between the hills, where the soil is of a rich alluvial nature, and can be irrigated from numerous wells and tanks. On the hill-sides, the only cultivation attempted is by burning down occasional patches of forest, and scattering seed in the ashes. Though the country is broken and hilly, none of the hills attain a great height. The geological structure of Dúngarpur is of trap; the rocks belong to the granitic, primitive, or metamorphic order of formation, their chief constituents being gneiss, hornblende, argillaceous schist or clay slate, mica, calcareous sandstone, quartz, etc. A good durable stone of the granitic class, fit for building purposes, is quarried from a hill about 6 miles south of the capital. A soft greenish greystone (serpentine) is found near the village of Matugamra, about 6 miles east of the capital. This is carved extensively at Dúngarpur town and elsewhere, into idols, drinking cups, and effigies of men and animals. Another species of hard stone (basaltic), of which grindstones and similar articles are manufactured, is mined near the town of Sagwára. Lime is found in tolerable abundance, but not of very pure quality. No attempt appears ever to have been made to work an iron mine in the State, although the presence of this ore in the form of iron pyrites is manifest.

The only rivers are the Mahi and Som, which meet near the sacred

temple of Baneswar, where a large fair is held every year. The Mahi divides the State from Bánswára, and the Som from the estate of Salumbar in Udaipur (Oodeypore). Both these streams are perennial, although in several places the water of the Som runs in a subterranean channel, suddenly disappearing and emerging again, apparently but little affected by its temporary subsidence. The bed of the Mahi is on an average about 300 or 400 feet in breadth, and is, on the whole, stony. Its banks are in many parts steep, but never very high, and are thickly lined in many places with Vitex trifolia (chaste tree), called by the natives *bena*, which affords cover in the hot weather to tigers and other wild beasts. There are no natural lakes in the State, but there are some five or six large pieces of water artificially enclosed. The climate is temperate and dry. The mean temperature is about 75° F., with an annual range of about 25°, and the average rainfall is 24 inches. With the exception of ague and fever of a mild type at the end of the rains, the country is considered to be on the whole healthy, cholera and other epidemics being almost unknown; guinea-worm is a common complaint.

The natural productions of the State are — wheat, barley, gram, millet, Indian corn, rice, and a few inferior sorts of grain; also cotton, opium, oil-seeds, ginger, chillies, turmeric, and sugar-cane. Vegetables (onions, yams, sweet potatoes, egg plants, and radishes) are grown in considerable quantities. Fruit is not abundant, little else being seen but melons, limes, mangoes, and plantains. *Mahuá* trees are very numerous, and from their flower a strong fermented liquor is distilled.

The total population returned by the Census of 1881 was 153,381, of whom 66,952 were Bhíls, the whole being distributed in 421 villages and towns, and occupying 36,226 houses, of which 16,759 were those of the Bhíls. Classified according to religion, the Hindus numbered 75,260; the Muhammadans, 3609; and Jains, 7560. Excluding the Bhíls, whose enumeration as to sex was not determined, the males numbered 44,568; females, 41,861; average of the total population, 153 persons per square mile. There are said to be sixteen first-class nobles or Thákurs and thirty-two of inferior rank, who compose the aristocracy of the State. All these are Rájputs, who hold their land nominally by grant from the ruling chief, but really by right of kinship or alliance with his family; their united estates comprise lands in which are situated 170 villages. The State is divided into 6 *parganás* or *tappás*, namely, Bárá, Barel, Kitárá, Chaurási, Tirpod, and Chúsat, in each of which are several villages, which are classed as follows:—(1) *Khálsa*, or crown lands; (2) *Jágírs*, or those held by the nobles; and (3) *Khairát*, or religious grants. The greater portion of the land is irrigated by wells. The principal traders are the Mahájans among the Hindus, and the Bohras (Borahs) among

the Muhammadans. A number of Patháns and Mekránis reside in Dúngarpur territory, most of whom are employed as soldiers or armed retainers. The language spoken is a mixture of Gujaráthí and Hindustání, locally called Bágar.

Some years ago, carefully-prepared statistics showed that the total land revenue of Dúngarpur amounted to about £18,335, of which £7968 went to the State, £9196 to the Thákurs, and the balance to the religious orders. In 1882–83, the revenue of the State was reported to the Meywár officials as being £20,931. The State pays tribute to the British Government of about £350. No schools have been established in Dúngarpur, nor is there any system of education. All civil and criminal cases of any importance are settled by a court of officials called *kámdárs*, presided over by the *díwán* or minister, from which, however, an appeal lies to the Maháráwal. There are six police centres in the Districts, at each of which is stationed an official called a *thánádár*. The *thánádárs* are of two classes; the first can sentence offenders to one month's imprisonment, or impose a fine of 50s. The second can impose a fine of £1, or eight days' imprisonment. The police arrangements of the capital are conducted by a *kotwál* or superintendent and 25 constables. There is a jail at the capital.

There are no made roads in the State. The principal towns are the capital DUNGARPUR, Galliákot, and Sagwára. Two fairs are held during the year, one at Baneswar in February or March, the other at Galliákot about the end of the latter month, each lasting about fifteen days. Baneswar is also a place of Hindu pilgrimage.

Maháráwal Udai Singh is the present chief of Dúngarpur. He belongs to the Sesodiá clan of Rájputs, and claims descent from an elder branch of the family which now rules at Udaipur. The early history of the family is not known with certainty; but when the Mughal Empire had been fairly consolidated, the Dúngarpur chief appears to have opened communication with the Mughal court. His successors paid tribute and did military service. Upon the fall of the Empire, Dúngarpur became tributary to the Maráthás, from whose yoke the prince and his people were rescued by the British, and a treaty was concluded in 1818. As in other States inhabited by wild hill-tribes, it became necessary at an early period of the British supremacy to employ a military force to coerce the Bhíls, who had been excited to rebellion by some of the disaffected nobles. The Bhíl chiefs, however, submitted to terms before any actual hostilities commenced. The Maháráwal Jaswant Singh was found incompetent as a ruler, and deposed by the British Government in 1825. His adopted son, Dalpat Singh, second son of the chief of Partábgarh, was made regent, and succeeded him. But on his accession to the State of Partábgarh, he was permitted to adopt the present ruler, Udai Singh, then a minor, as his successor in Dúngarpur.

The military force consists of 4 guns, about 400 cavalry, and 1000 infantry. The chief is entitled to a salute of 15 guns, and holds a *sanad* from the British Government authorizing adoption.

Dúngarpur. — Town and residence of the Maháráwal of the Dúngarpur State in Rájputána; lies in latitude 23° 52′ N., longitude 73° 49′ E., on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to Dísa (Deesa), 139 miles south-west of the former and 121 miles south-east of the latter. The town is overlooked by a hill about 700 feet high, and 5 miles in circumference at base, which, with the Maháráwal's palace on its side, and a lake at its foot, forms a striking picture.

Dúni.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. Latitude 25° 52′ N., longitude 75° 38′ E.; 70 miles south of Jaipur. Population (1881) 3383. Contains a fort, and is surrounded by a mud wall.

Duns, The.—*See* DEHRA DUN.

Dúnthamí.—River in the Tenasserim Division, British Burma, which has never been thoroughly explored. It rises somewhat below the latitude of Shwe-gyin, between the Bílin (Bhíleng) and Salwín rivers, and, after a tortuous course southwards, unites with the Kyauk-sarit in about lat. 16° 59′ 30″ N., to form the Binlaing (Bhenglaing), a tributary of the Salwín. Navigable by native boats. In the upper part of its course it flows through a hilly teak-covered country, and its tributary streams facilitate the transport of the timber in the rains.

Dúnwon.—Village in Tha-tún township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Bílin (Bhíleng) river now embanked. Population (1881) 285. In former times Dúnwon was an important walled city, and the capital of the surrounding country. In 1306 and 1351, when it formed a portion of Martaban, it was captured by the King of Chiengmai, east of the Salwín; later on, it was taken by Radzadirit.

Dúnyian.—Tidal creek in Thungwa District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Its total length is 13 miles, and it runs from the To or China Bakir in a southerly direction to the sea. The depth of water varies from ½ fathom to 8 or 9 fathoms, the northern end being shallow, and the southern deep; the water is sweet, except at spring tides, when a high bore is formed. On account of numerous shoals, the river is only navigable by small boats. On its right bank, in the interior, stretch extensive plains abounding in game; and on the left, wild elephants are found.

Dúnyin.—A peak in the Zweh-ka-bin Hills, north of Maulmain, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is difficult of ascent, owing to the precipitous nature of the limestone rocks. At the summit is a large basin, which appears to be the crater of an extinct volcano; this is surrounded for miles by dark precipitous crags of every form. Down a steep descent of one or two hundred feet,

an uneven plain covered with a luxuriant forest is seen. This impregnable natural fortress was the refuge of the Karengs for many generations. Its great drawback is the deficient water-supply. It is said that a large number of Karengs, besieged here by the Siamese, perished for want of food and water. Dúnyin means 'City of weeping,' and derives its name from this tradition.

Durduriá.—Site of a ruined fort in Dacca District, Bengal, said to have been built by the Bhuiyá Rájás; its popular name is Ránibárí. Dr. Taylor states that the fort is laid out in the shape of a crescent, bounded by the river Banar. In 1839, the outer wall, upwards of 2 miles in circuit, was 12 or 14 feet high. The citadel, which appears to have had three openings, contains the remains of two buildings, one of which seems to have been a tower. Opposite to Durduriá are the foundations of a town, of which the only vestiges existing in 1839 were mounds and loose bricks scattered over the surface of the plain.

Durgárayapatnam (*Yuvarayapatam*, 'City of the Minister,' Telugu). —Town in the Gúdúr *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 59′ N., long. 80° 12′ E. Population (1881) 2123, namely, 1829 Hindus and 294 Muhammadans. Number of houses, 400. Formerly the chief of the group of small ports—Púdi, Pamanji, Túpili—lying near the Armeghon lighthouse, but now of as little commercial importance as the others, the East Coast Canal having diverted the coasting traffic upon which they depended. Still possesses a customs station and a fine travellers' bungalow. The salt manufacture at this place is of some repute. Historically, Durgárayapatnam, or Armeghon as it is sometimes called, is of interest as being the first British settlement on the Coromandel coast. In 1625, after unsuccessful attempts to settle at Pulicat and Masulipatam, a colony was established here; and in 1628 a factory was built at Chenna Kuppam (re-named 'Arumugam,' in recognition of the friendly aid given by Arumugam Mudelliar, the chief man of the native town), and fortified with 12 guns. The remnants of the Masulipatam settlement were then transferred here. But owing to the interference of the Dutch at Pulicat, and the hostility of the Rájá of Venkatagiri, the trade languished; and on the chief factor's recommendation to move the settlement to some spot south of Pulicat, the site of Madras city was purchased.

Durrung.—District of Assam.—*See* DARRANG.

Duttalúr.—Village in Udayagiri *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 2926; number of houses, 552.

Duttia.—State in Bundelkhand, Central India Agency.—*See* DATIA.

Dúya.—An extensive group of intercommunicating lakes in Henzada township, Henzada District, Irawadi (Irrawaddy) Division, British Burma. The Dúya proper is 2 square miles in extent, and, until the embankments were made, was connected with the Irawadi by the Atha-

yút stream. It is divided into two portions by an island. The Mosún portion is 2½ miles in length, and from 300 to 400 yards in breadth, with a depth of from 6 to 9 feet of water in the dry season. The other chief lakes are the Intha-nyút, length 1400 feet, maximum breadth 700 feet, and depth of water 4 to 6 feet; and the Mobaleh, with about 5 feet of water in the dry weather. These lakes are fed by the drainage of the surrounding country, but the Irawadi embankments have now closed the mouths of the streams by which they communicated with that river during the rains.

Dwárband.—Pass in the Tiláin range of hills, in Cachar District, Assam, through which the road has been led joining Háilákándi with the station of Silchár.

Dwarikeswar.—River of Bengal.—*See* DHALKISOR.

Dwárká.—Seaport and place of Hindu pilgrimage, situated in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, within the dominions of the Gáekwár of Baroda. Latitude 22° 14′ 20″ N., and longitude 69° 5′ E.; 235 miles south-west of Ahmadábád, and 270 west of Baroda. Population (1870) 4712; in 1881, under 5000; number of houses, 743. Dwárká is the principal town in the Vágher District of OKHAMANDAL, and besides a company of Bombay Native Infantry, contains the head-quarters of the Okhámandal Battalion, which has a non-commissioned officer and three privates stationed at every Vágher village. The temple of Dwárkánáth is resorted to by about 10,000 pilgrims annually. The devout Hindu believes it to have been raised in one night by supernatural agency. It consists of a shrine, a spacious hall of audience, the roof of which is supported by 60 granite and sandstone pillars and a conical spire 170 feet in height. The body of the temple has five stories, its height being 100 feet. Annual revenue derived from the temple, £200. Vessels occasionally lie off the roadstead at Dwárká, but the anchorage is insecure during stormy weather. Five schools; military and civil hospitals. Dwárká has, since the rebellion of the Vágher tribes in 1859, been the head-quarters of an officer deputed by the Bombay Political Department.

Dwarká (or *Babla*).—An unnavigable river of Bengal, rising in the Santál Parganás District; in lat. 23° 57′ N., and long. 87° 21′ E. Thence it enters Bírbhúm from the north, and from Bírbhúm passes into Murshidábád near Margrám town. At first the course of the Dwarká is easterly, until joined by the Bráhmaní stream at Rámchandrapur. It then turns towards the south-east, and receives the Mor and Kuiyá, two rivers also flowing down from Bírbhúm towards the Bhágírathi. At this point the numerous back-waters commence which connect the Dwarká with the BHAGIRATHI, a branch of the Ganges or Padmá.

Dwarkeswar.—River of Bengal.—*See* DHALKISOR.

Dwár-khaling.—Forest reserve in Darrang District, Assam.—*See* KHALING-DWAR.

Dwárs, Eastern.—The tract called the Eastern Dwárs forms an integral portion of Goálpárá District, under the Chief Commissioner of Assam. It lies between 26° 19′ and 26° 54′ N. lat., and between 89° 55′ and 91° E. long. It is bounded on the north by the hills of Bhután; on the east by the Manás river, separating it from the District of Kámrúp; on the south by the main portion of Goálpárá District; and on the west by the Gangádhar or Sankos river, which separates it from the Western Dwárs, attached to Jalpáigurí District, in Bengal, and the State of Kuch Behar. According to the Revenue Survey conducted in 1874–75, the area amounts to 1569·92 square miles, and the Census of 1881 returned the population at 56,136 persons. The principal town, or rather village, is BIJNI; but the tract is administered from DHUBRI town, which is also the head-quarters of the entire District of Goálpárá.

Physical Aspects.—The Eastern Dwárs form a flat strip of country, lying beneath the Bhután mountains. The only elevated tract is Bhumeswar hill, which rises abruptly out of the plains to the height of nearly 400 feet, and may be regarded as a detached spur of the Gáro Hills on the south of the Brahmaputra. The remainder is an absolute level, intersected by numerous streams, and overgrown with wild vegetation. In some parts there are extensive tracts of *sál* forest; but the greater portion is covered with heavy grass and reed jungle, amid which the beautiful cotton-tree (Bombax pentandrum) is the only timber to be seen. This grass jungle is especially thick along the banks of the rivers, where it is almost impenetrable to man. The few villages are marked by clearings of rice and mustard cultivation. The houses themselves are embowered in clumps of bamboos and plantains, above which tower the graceful betel-nut palm, and various fruit-trees. At the foot of the mountains, where the rivers debouch upon the plain, the scenery assumes a grander aspect.

The following eleven rivers are navigable by native boats throughout the year:—Manás, Dalání, Pákájání, Aí, Kánámákrá, Champámátí, Gauráng, Saralbhángá, Gangiá, Gurupálá, and Gangádhar. In addition, there are numerous small streams which become navigable during the rainy season. By far the most important channel of communication is afforded by the MANAS, which might be navigated by steamers of light draught. All the rivers take their rise in the Bhután Hills, and flow in a southerly direction into the Brahmaputra. Their beds are filled with boulders in the hills, but they become sandy as they advance into the plain. There is a peculiar tract of pebbles, gravel, and sand fringing the hills, into which the water of all the minor streams sinks during the greater part of the year, not again appearing above ground until it reaches the alluvial clay.

The valuable forests of the Eastern Dwárs have within the last few years been placed under Government supervision; and in 1881 an area of 447 square miles, or just one-quarter of the aggregate area of the entire tract, had been 'reserved,' and placed under the management of the Forest Department. About 80 square miles are *sál* timber, which is described as the most valuable property in the whole Province of Assam, and should yield an annual produce of 25,000 trees. At present, however, owing to the indiscriminate havoc wrought in former years by the Bengali woodcutters, there are no mature trees left standing. Besides *sál* (Shorea robusta) the following timber-trees are carefully preserved in an 'open forest':—*Sissu* (Dalbergia sissu), *khair* (Acacia catechu), and *chelauní* (Schima *vel* Gordonia mollis); all other timber is free. The great danger to which the forests are exposed is the spread of *júm* cultivation, by which fresh tracts of jungle are fired every year. Stringent regulations are now enforced against this practice within Government reserves. The jungle products include lac, beeswax, *pipalí* or long pepper (Chavica roxburghii), and a creeper from which a red dye called *ásu* is obtained. No metals or mineral products are known to exist. Wild animals of all kinds abound, including elephant, rhinoceros, buffalo, tiger, bear, hog, and deer.

History.—This tract first became British territory as the result of the Bhután war of 1864–65, and does not possess any independent history of its own. It is known, however, that the despotic rule of the Bhutiás was only of recent date. The earliest dynasty that can be localized in this tract is that of Visu Singh, the ancestor of the Kuch Behar Rájás, who founded an empire in the 16th century on the ruins of an earlier kingdom, extending from Darrang in the upper valley of the Brahmaputra to the frontier of Purniah in Bengal. But this wide empire rapidly fell to pieces, owing partly to the anarchical system, by which large tracts were granted out as appanages to younger sons of the royal family. In this way the Rájás of Bijni and Sidli Dwárs, as well as the Rájá of Darrang, acquired their present estates. While the State thus became enfeebled, invaders were pressing forward from every quarter. On the west, the Mughals rapidly advanced, and annexed the permanently-settled portion of Goálpárá to their Province of Bengal. The wild tribe of Ahams spread down the Brahmaputra valley, and maintained themselves at the ancient capital of Gauhátí against the Musalmán armies. At about the same time, the Dwárs or lowland passes along the foot of the mountains fell to the Bhutiás, who here found the cultivable ground that their own bare mountains did not afford. They exercised predominant influence over the whole tract from the frontier of Sikkim as far east as Darrang, and frequently enforced claims of suzerainty over the enfeebled State of Kuch Behar. They do not appear to have occupied this tract permanently, but merely to have

exacted a heavy tribute, and subjected the miserable inhabitants to the cruellest treatment. In contradistinction to the results of Muhammadan rule, it is to be observed that the Buddhism of the Bhutiás has left no traces in the religion of the native population. Kuch Behar was delivered from the Bhutiá tyranny by the treaty of 1772, in accordance with which the Rájá placed himself under British protection, and paid tribute to the East India Company. The Bhután Dwárs, as they were called, remained for nearly a century longer in a state of anarchy. In 1863, a British ambassador was subjected to gross insults by the Bhután Government; and, as a punishment, it was resolved to annex the Dwárs to British territory. Accordingly, in December 1864, four strong military columns made a simultaneous advance, and occupied the low country and the hill passes above, after slight opposition. At the fort of DIWANGIRI (*q.v.*) a reverse to the British arms was experienced; but before the close of 1865, the Bhutiás consented to accept the terms of peace which had been offered to them before the outbreak of hostilities. By this treaty, the Dwárs were ceded in perpetuity to the British Government, and an annual allowance of £2500 was granted to the Bhután Rájá, which sum may be increased to £5000, or withdrawn altogether, at the option of the British. Since that date our relations with Bhután have been entirely peaceful. The frontier raids, which were formerly of frequent occurrence, have altogether ceased. A brisk traffic has sprung up on the frontier, and cultivation is rapidly extending in the annexed territory.

The Bhután Dwárs were forthwith divided into the two administrative Districts of the Eastern and Western Dwárs, of which the latter has since been apportioned between the Bengal Districts of Jalpáigurí and Dárjíling. The Eastern Dwárs were at first placed in charge of a Deputy Commissioner, with his head-quarters at the village of Datmá, in the Goálpárá *parganá* of Khuntághát. In December 1866 they were completely incorporated with the District of Goálpárá, and have since shared in all the changes of jurisdiction by which that District has been transferred between Bengal and Assam. Since 1874, when Assam was erected into an independent Province under a Chief Commissioner, the Eastern Dwárs have been permanently detached from Bengal. But though the settled portion of Goálpárá and the Eastern Dwárs are under the control of a single officer, the system of administration is quite distinct. By Act xvi. of 1869, all matters relating to immoveable property, revenue, and rent, are exempted from the jurisdiction of the civil courts. The property in the soil is vested in the State. By the settlement which expired in March 1877, leases were granted for seven years. In some of the Dwárs these leases were granted direct to the cultivators, without the interposition of any middle-men ; but in other

cases the Rájás received farming leases of the whole area over which they claimed to exercise authority. The latter system has not been found advantageous; and in regard to the Dwárs of Ripu, Guma, and Chirang, the management has, since the expiry of the previous settlement, been carried on under the regular Assam Settlement system, by annual *pattás* or leases granted direct to the cultivators through representatives of villages (*mauzádárs*). In Sidli and Bijní Dwárs it has recently been decided to recognise the Rájás who derive their titles from those estates, as *zamíndárs* or proprietors at a permanently-fixed Government rental, for the greater part of the area, and to conclude a settlement direct with them for the remainder, protecting the cultivators by a sub-settlement.

Population.—At the time of the settlement of 1869-70, the Deputy Commissioner personally conducted an enumeration of the people, which showed a total population of 37,047 persons, dwelling in 2863 enclosures or villages and in 6888 houses, on an area of 1569 square miles. In 1881, the total population was returned at 56,136, but no details are available. The great bulk of the inhabitants belong to the two aboriginal tribes of Mech or Cachari and Koch or Rájbansí. The number of Hindus proper is very small, and the Muhammadans only number 110, who are supposed to represent proselytes made at the time of the Mughal conquest of Goálpárá. The Mechs are returned by the Deputy Commissioner as numbering in 1870, 8752 adult males, or 70 per cent. of the total. This tribe is generally regarded as cognate to the Koch, Cachari, and Rábhá, all of whom inhabit this part of the country. The names of Mech and Cachari are indifferently applied to the same people, the latter name being especially used in the extreme east of the District. The tribe is widely scattered over all North-Eastern Bengal, being able to support life in the malarious *tarái* that continuously fringes the first slopes of the Himálayas. In the Eastern Dwárs, and especially in Sidlí Dwár, where, under the Bhután Government, they remained comparatively free from Hindu influences, they have preserved their own language and customs in greater purity than elsewhere. They describe themselves as having originally come from a place they called Rangsar, on the south side of the upper valley of the Brahmaputra, whence they were gradually pushed westwards into Assam. Owing to the anarchy that prevailed in Assam towards the close of the last century, a considerable portion of the population of Kámrúp crowded into the frontier District of Goálpárá. The upper classes returned to Assam upon our annexation of the Province in 1824-25; but the poorer wanderers settled permanently in the *parganás* of Khuntághát and Hábrághát, whence they have recently moved into Eastern Dwárs. At the present time they are rapidly falling under the influence of Hinduism, and converts find no difficulty in being received

among the Rájbansí and other mongrel castes. Their indigenous religion consists in the propitiation of evil spirits by the sacrifice of fowls. Converts to Hinduism are known as Soroniás, but the change does not seem to be very extensive; they are only required to bathe, to call on the name of some *guru* or spiritual instructor, and to abstain from beef, pork, and liquor. Their social condition is very low. They do not appear to have ever achieved any form of polity of their own. They have but few traditions, no ancient songs, no monuments, no written character, and no literature of any kind. Their marriage ceremony preserves the primitive form of abduction. They still retain migratory habits, which are illustrated by the nomadic form of agriculture known as *júm*. On the other hand, they are not destitute of the virtues of savages. They are more uniformly honest and trustworthy than the lowland peasantry; chastity is esteemed a virtue, and crime of any sort is rare. Above all, the Mechs are possessed of a physical constitution that enables them to live and flourish all the year through in a malarious tract which is absolutely fatal to strangers; and their rude methods of agriculture are gradually rendering the country habitable for successors of a superior race. The Rájbansís numbered in 1870, 2400 adult males, or 20 per cent. of the total. This tribe is identical with the Koch of Assam and of Kuch Behar. They are said to have originally inhabited the lower ranges of hills to the north, and to have first descended into the plains in about the 16th century. The high-sounding name of Rájbansí, meaning 'of the royal kindred,' is adopted by those Kochs who have embraced Hinduism, as well as by converts from other aboriginal tribes. According to Mr. Brian H. Hodgson, Koch is beyond doubt simply the name of Hinduized Mechs or Cacharis. Their original seat in Assam was probably in the Northern Cachar Hills and in Nowgong and Darrang Districts. The most numerous of the pure Súdra castes is the Kolitá, who acted as priests to the native kings of Assam, and are now engaged as peons, clerks, and cultivators. The Bairágís are the religious mendicants of the Vishnuvite sect; and the Goswámís or Gosáins are their spiritual preceptors. The Bráhma Samáj has no followers in the Eastern Dwárs.

The population is absolutely rural, every person being directly engaged in agriculture. The only village that possesses a permanent *bázár* is BIJNI, and even small shops are rarely to be seen. There is abundance of spare land that can easily be brought under cultivation, and the sparsely-scattered inhabitants are described as being all prosperous and contented. Immigration is steadily going on from the neighbouring *parganás* of Kámrúp and Goálpárá, and the new-comers at once amalgamate with the rest of the people, as they are usually of the same race. An interesting experiment in colonization was begun in 1880 by the introduction of some Santál families, all professing

Christianity. These settlers now (1882) number about 75 households, and more are expected to follow.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop throughout the Eastern Dwárs is rice, which is cultivated in three principal varieties. The *áus* or *ásu* crop is sown on comparatively high lands in March; it is not transplanted, and is reaped in July. The *báo* or *bává*, which is a long-stemmed variety, is not much grown. The *áman*, *haimantik*, or *sálí* furnishes the greater portion of the food-supply; it is sown broadcast in nurseries in June, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in December. Mustard seed is extensively grown as a second crop after *áus* rice. Minor crops include vegetables, barley, pulse, tobacco, *pán* or betel-leaf, and betel-nut (Areca catechu). According to the Survey of 1869–70, out of a total area of more than one million acres, only 51,224, or about one-twentieth, were then under cultivation,—thus sub-divided: *sálí* rice, 32,296; *áus* rice and mustard, 15,498; homestead lands, 2493. The cultivated area in 1882 had increased to 66,572 acres. The Mechs follow the *júm* method of cultivation, and raise a good deal of cotton on their forest clearings in addition to the ordinary crops. Manure is only used for the *pán* plant, and then in the form of refuse from the cow-sheds. Irrigation is universally practised in the case of the *sálí* rice crop. The cultivators combine to cut channels from the hill streams, by which they distribute the water over their fields. Waste land is abundant on all sides, and consequently the same fields are never cultivated after they begin to lose their natural productiveness. *Aus* land is generally abandoned after two years; but *sálí* land continues to yield annual crops for a longer period. The entire soil is the property of Government, and, by the settlement of 1869–70, was leased out for a term of seven years, on conditions favourable to the spread of cultivation. The rates of rents then fixed, which still continue in force under the present system of annual settlements, were the following: —For homestead and *sálí* lands, 3s. per acre; for *áus* lands, 1s. 6d. per acre. The average out-turn from an acre of *sálí* land is estimated at about 23 cwts. of paddy or unhusked rice, valued at £2, 15s.; an acre of *áus* land yields about 15 cwts. of paddy, and an additional 5 cwts. of mustard seed, the whole being valued at £2, 5s. Women and children are largely employed in the fields.

No professional class of day-labourers exists in the Eastern Dwárs; but coolies may sometimes be obtained for 4d. a day. Agricultural labourers are generally remunerated by being allowed to retain a fixed share of the produce, without having any interest in the soil. Artisans also, such as smiths or carpenters, are paid in kind for any odd job they may do. The price of rice varies regularly with the season of the year. Best rice shortly after harvest sells at about 5s. 5d. per cwt., which gradually rises through the year till it reaches 8s. 2d., just before the

áman crop is gathered. Similarly the price of common rice varies from 2s. 8d. to 5s. 5d. per cwt. Unhusked paddy fetches from one-third to one-half the price of cleaned rice. The prices of food-grains were not affected by the famines of 1866 and 1874.

Since the Eastern Dwárs came under British rule in 1864, such a calamity as the general destruction of the harvest by either flood, drought, or blight, has been unknown and unthought of. The rice crops have been occasionally injured by river floods and excessive local rainfall. The irrigation universally practised by the cultivators furnishes an efficient guarantee against the effects of drought. If an unprecedented misfortune were to happen, and the price of rice were to rise to 10s. per cwt. at the beginning of the year, that should be regarded as a sign of approaching famine. The inhabitants, however, know how to support life on various jungle products, and the numerous rivers afford ample means of communication. The only road in the Eastern Dwárs is one that crosses the whole tract from east to west, running a length of 73 miles. It is interrupted by unbridged rivers and swampy tracts, and becomes altogether impassable during the rainy season. Wheeled carts are nowhere used.

Manufactures, etc.—There is no manufacturing class in the Eastern Dwárs. In addition to their livelihood of agriculture, the people make for themselves their own houses, their own clothes, baskets, and mats. Brass utensils and pottery require to be purchased from Goálpárá. The only article manufactured for sale is a coarse silk fabric called *eriá*, which is woven from the cocoons of a worm fed on the castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis). A piece, 14 feet long by 4 feet broad, sells for from 12s. to £1, according to the fineness of its texture. The Mechs also hollow out the trunks of trees into boats, called *dungás*, which are floated down the streams in the rainy season for sale on the Brahmaputra. This industry is mainly supported by advances from the Goálpárá merchants.

The trade of the Eastern Dwárs is mainly conducted by barter, and is in the hands of Márwárí merchants from Goálpárá and Kámrúp. Boats come up the rivers during the rainy season, and transact their business at the villages on the river banks. There are no large permanent markets. The principal articles of export are rice, mustard seed, *eriá* cloth, cotton, india-rubber, a dye called *ásu*, timber, and boats; in exchange for which are received brass-ware, pottery, salt, cotton cloth, oil, spices, cocoa-nuts, and miscellaneous hardware. In ordinary seasons, the crops provide a considerable surplus for exportation.

Administration.—The Eastern Dwárs consist of the following 5 Dwárs: —Bijni—area 374 square miles, population (1881) 24,882; Sidli—area 361 square miles, population 23,657; Chirang—area 495 square

miles, population 1216; RIPU—area 242 square miles, population 3040; GUMA—area 98 square miles, population 3341. The administrative statistics cannot be separated from those of the District of Goálpárá, and are given in the aggregate in the special article on that District. It is there stated that the total land revenue from temporarily-settled estates, which may be assumed to be co-extensive with the Eastern Dwárs, amounted in 1874–75 to £5158, collected from 27 estates. The tract is entirely administered from Dhubrí town, and no European officer is permanently stationed in it.

A settlement of the land revenue was made for seven years in 1870. Chirang Dwár was held *khás*, or, in other words, engagements were taken from the occupants actually in possession; for the four other Dwárs collective leases were granted to neighbouring landlords or chiefs. Provision was made for the protection of occupancy rights, and permission to extend cultivation was conceded to the leaseholders, who receive the profits arising from such extension during the currency of their term. As already mentioned, the Assam system of settlement has now been substituted for the leases granted in 1870, in all but two of the Dwárs, which have been settled with the Rájás of Sidlí and Bijní, who have been held to be entitled to the position of *zamíndárs*. The Eastern Dwars are included within the head-quarters Sub-division of Dhubrí.

Dwars, Western.—A tract lying along the foot of the Himálayas, and including some of their outermost spurs, in the north-east of JALPAIGURI DISTRICT, Bengal. The Western Dwárs, together with their continuation, the EASTERN DWARS (*q.v.*), were annexed to the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal as the result of the Bhután war of 1864–65. The Eastern Dwárs now form part of the Chief-Commissionership of Assam (Goálpárá District); while the Western Dwárs remain under the Bengal Government. The entire tract contains a large area of waste land covered with jungle, but intersected by streams from the mountains, and well suited for reclamation. A considerable population of husbandmen has already moved into the Dwárs; and the Western Dwárs have been lately (1881–84) opened for tea-planting on a large scale. Grants of land for the latter purpose have been taken up with increasing rapidity, and tea-planting is being pushed forward, not only by private persons, but also by companies commanding an amount of capital almost unprecedented in this line of industry. The labour difficulty which has to be encountered in Assam, occurs here in a much less serious form. Large numbers of coolies find their way into the Western Dwárs under the guidance of native contractors, without the intervention of the Labour Transport Laws. They receive high wages in the tea-gardens, and most of them return to their villages in the interior of Bengal with con-

siderable savings, after a few years. Indeed, the success of free immigration into the Western Dwárs holds out a hopeful promise for the settlement of the difficulties attending the movement of labour to other tea-growing tracts. The climate is unhealthy, but this deterrent influence disappears as the jungle is cleared, and considerable tracts are opened up, and as substantial houses are built for the planters, and suitable coolie lines for the labourers.

The Western Dwars, now called *parganás*, extend from the Sankos river on the east, which forms the boundary between Goálpárá and Jalpáigurí Districts, and the Tístá river on the west. They are 9 in number, viz.:—(1) BHALKA, area (1881) 119 square miles; (2) BHATIBARI, area 149 square miles; (3) BAXA, area 300 square miles; (4) CHAKAO-KSHATTRIYA, area 138 square miles; (5) MADARI, area 194 square miles; (6) LAKSHMIPUR, area 165 square miles; (7) MARAGHAT, area 342 square miles; (8) MAINAGURI, area 309 square miles; (9) CHENGMARI, area 146 square miles.

E.

Eastern Dwárs.—Tract of country in Goálpárá District, Assam.—*See* DWARS, EASTERN.

Eastern Gháts.—Mountain range extending along the eastern coast of India.—*See* GHATS.

Edapádi.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3942, namely, 3650 Hindus, 277 Muhammadans, and 15 Christians.

Edar (*Idar*).—The principal Rájput State of the Mahi Kántha Agency in Káthiáwár, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency; bounded on the north by Sirohi (Sirohee) and Udaipur (Oodeypore), on the east by Dúngarpur, and on the south and west by the territories of the Bombay Presidency and of the Gáekwár of Baroda. Population (1881) 258,429, including 10,916 Bhíls; estimated gross revenue, including transit dues, £52,444. The area of the State, according to the Census statement of 1881, was returned at 4966 square miles, of which the cultivable waste was estimated at 833 square miles, and the non-cultivable at about the same. The number of towns and villages in the State, excluding the hamlets of the Bhíls, was returned by the Census at 805, containing 56,602 occupied and 12,052 unoccupied houses. The Bhil population occupied 2729 houses in 94 hamlets. In the whole population the males numbered 131,823, the females 126,606. Number of persons per square mile, 52. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 243,399; Muhammadans, 8760; Jains, 6266; there were also 3 Pársís and 1 Christian. Among the Hindus, 17,441 were

Bráhmans, and 10,309 Rájputs. The soil of the State is generally fertile; in some places it is of a light sandy nature, in others rich and black; towards the north and north-eastern parts near the hills, poor and stony. A peculiar feature of the country is the abundance of *mahuá*, mango, *khirni*, and other fruit-trees. The jungle in some parts, particularly at the foot of the hills, is very thick and intersected with ravines. Principal products—grains, oil-seeds, sugar-cane. Manufactures—a small quantity of country soap. There are quarries in the neighbourhood of Ahmadnagar, and the stone is used for building purposes.

The greater part of the population are Kolís, the remainder consists of Rájputs, Bráhmans, Baniyás, Kumbís, etc. The present ruling family, though Rájputs of the most ancient lineage, only arrived in Edar at a comparatively recent date. Tradition relates that the original sovereigns of Edar, as in most of the rest of Gujarát, were Bhalsúr Kolís. The last chief of this tribe was named Sambla. A debauched and vicious man, his ministers conspired against him, and invited Ráo Sonag of Simatra, the ancestor of the Ráos of Pol, to their aid. This chief killed Sambla, and took possession of his territory. About twelve generations of this family are reckoned to the expulsion of Jagannáth, the last Ráo of Edar, in 1656, by Murád Baksh, at that time the Subahdár of Gujarát. A Desai or Deputy was afterwards placed in charge of Edar for some years. In 1729, Anand Singh and Rái Singh, two brothers of the Rájá of Jodhpur, accompanied by a few horsemen from Vamo and Pálanpur and the Kolís of Godwára, established themselves in Edar without much difficulty. This family is the last that effected a settlement in Gujarát by conquest. They are said to have acted under an order from Delhi; but the truth seems to be that they were tempted by the state of the country, and most likely assisted by the Márwár princes who at that period held the Subahdárí of Ahmadábád. The Edar principality consisted of the Districts of Edar, Ahmadnagar, Morása, Báad, Harsol, Parántij, and Vijápur, to which five other Districts were rendered tributary. Some years after the conquest, at the instigation of the Desai above mentioned, who appears to have been displaced by the Márwárís, an officer in the service of Damájí Gáekwár, named Bachájí Duvájí, was despatched on the part of the Peshwá to take possession of Edar. This he accomplished with the aid of the Rahwár Rájputs, the servants of the late Ráo. Anand Singh was killed about 1753; and Bachájí, after leaving a detachment behind, returned to Ahmadábád. Rái Singh, however, collected a force, and again obtained possession of Edar. Seo Singh, son of Anand Singh, now became ruler under the guardianship of his uncle Rái Singh, who died in 1766. During the rule of Seo Singh, the State was stripped, by the Peshwá, of Parántij, Vijápur, and half of

the three Districts of Morása, Báad, and Harsol, which Districts were afterwards ceded by the Peshwá to the British Government. The other half of the Edar territories fell to the Gáekwár, who contented himself with the exaction of a share of the annual revenues, which at the settlement of 1812 was fixed in perpetuity at £2400 for Edar, and £895 for Ahmadnagar. Seo Singh died in 1791, leaving five sons, the eldest of whom, Bhawán Singh, succeeded him, but died in a few days, leaving the State to his son Gambhír Singh, a boy of ten years. Dissensions in the family now arose, which resulted in the temporary dismemberment of Edar. Sugrám Singh, second son of Seo Singh, who had received Ahmadnagar from his father in feudal grant, assumed independence; and with his assistance Zalim Singh and Amír Singh, two other sons of Seo Singh, after a long struggle possessed themselves respectively of Morása and Báad during Gambhír Singh's minority. Indra Singh, the fifth son of Seo Singh, who was blind, received Súr and three other villages for his support. Sugrám Singh, chief of Ahmadnagar, died in 1798, and was succeeded by his son Kuran Singh. Zalim Singh of Morása died childless in 1806, and his appanage ought to have lapsed to Edar. His widow, however, was allowed by the Gáekwár to adopt Pratáp Singh, Kuran Singh's brother, on whose death, in 1821, Morása was united with Ahmadnagar. On the death of Amír Singh of Báad without children, the reversion was claimed by both Edar and Ahmadnagar. The chief of Ahmadnagar, Kuran Singh, died in 1835, and was succeeded by his son Takht Singh, who was elected ruler of the State of Jodhpur in 1843. On his removal to Jodhpur, he still claimed the right to retain Ahmadnagar in his family; but in 1848, the British Government decided that Ahmadnagar should revert to Edar, and with it Morása and Báad.

Mahárájá Juwán Singh, Knight Commander of the Star of India, and a member of the Legislative Council of Bombay, died in 1868, and was succeeded in 1882 by his son Keshri Singh, the present Mahárájá, who was born in 1861, and educated at the Rájkumár College at Indore. He is a Rájput of the Rahtor clan and of the Joda family. He exercises first-class jurisdiction, having power to inflict capital punishment. He holds a *sanad* giving him the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. Many relatives of the Mahárájá, and feudal chiefs whose ancestors helped to secure the country for the present dynasty, now enjoy large estates on service tenures. The revenues of the State are shared by the Rájá with these feudal chiefs. In 1875, out of a total gross revenue of £60,000, it was estimated that only £25,000 was received by the central authority. The Mahárájá receives £1914 annually from several chiefs in the Mahi Kántha, and pays £3034 as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The

chiefs subordinate to Edar hold their estates on condition of military service, the quota being 3 horsemen for every £100 of revenue. The actual force maintained by them amounts to about 568 cavalry, and the same number of infantry, all undisciplined. The State contains 22 courts for criminal justice, and maintains a police force of 30 mounted and 418 foot, at an annual cost of £3597. There are 25 schools with 1278 pupils, of which two are girls' schools. A forest reserve, covering 54 square miles, is in contemplation. The State has agreed to suppress the cultivation of poppy, and to prevent smuggling. A special establishment to grapple with the practice of infanticide has been working for some time. An attempt to induce the Bhíls to send their children to school has failed; they laughingly say their sons must learn to drive cattle and use the bow. Transit dues are still levied in the State.

Edar.—Chief town of the State of Edar in Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 23° 50′ N., longitude 73° 4′ E.; 64 miles north-east of Ahmadábád. The town is traditionally known as Ildúrg. Population (1881) 6223, namely, 4206 Hindus, 970 Muhammadans, and 1047 Jains. Dispensary and post-office. The streets have recently been lighted.

Edawauna. — Village in Malabár District, Madras Presidency; situated in latitude 11° 59′ 45″ N., and longitude 75° 45′ 50″ E., on the left bank of the Beypore (Bepur) river, at the head of its navigable course, and 8 miles above Arikkod. Population (1881) 4800; number of houses, 820.

Edwardesábád (or *Dhulípnagar*). — Town, cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Bannu District, Punjab. Population (1881) 8960, namely, 4284 Hindus, 4110 Muhammadans, 503 Sikhs, and 63 'others.' Situated in lat. 32° 59′ 45″ N., and long. 70° 38′ 51″ E., near the north-west corner of the District, 1 mile south of the river Kuram, 84 miles south of Kohát, and 89 miles north of Dera Ismáil Khán. Founded in 1848 by Major (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, who selected the site for political reasons. The fort, erected at the same time, bore the name of Dhulípgarh, in honour of the young Mahárájá of Lahore; and the *bázár* was also known as Dhulípnagar. A town gradually grew up around the *bázár*, and many Hindu traders removed hither from the village of Bázár Ahmad Khán, which formed the commercial centre of the Bannu valley prior to annexation. The main *bázár* consists of a wide and handsome roadway, and contains a fine market-place. A mud wall runs round the town, within which lie the *tahsílí* and police office. The civil station, to the west of the fort, includes the court-house, treasury, jail, *sarái*, staging bungalow, dispensary, mounted police lines, and post-office. The Church Missionary Society supports a small church and a school-house. The canton-

ment centres round the fort of Dhulípgarh, which possesses quarters for two infantry regiments; outside the fortifications are lines for a cavalry regiment and a field battery of artillery. There are also a few bungalows for officers. The profuse irrigation and insufficient drainage of the surrounding fields render Edwardesábád an unhealthy station; and the troops in cantonments suffer greatly from malarious fevers and prostration. The town has a considerable trade, embracing the whole traffic in local produce of the Bannu valley. The nearest railway station is at Kushálgarh on the Punjab Northern State Railway, 124 miles distant by road. A weekly fair collects an average number of 2000 buyers and sellers. Chief articles of trade—cloth, live stock, wool, cotton, tobacco, and grain. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £1940; expenditure, £2502.

Egatpura (or *Egutpoora*).—Town in Násik District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* IGATPURI.

Egmore.—A quarter or suburb of MADRAS CITY.

Ekambá.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 58′ N., long. 87° 36′ 30″ E. One of the chief seats of commerce in the District, with trade in agricultural products, spices, piece-goods, hides, etc., carried on at permanent markets.

Eklaspur.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal.

Ekwárí.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal.

Elattúr.—River in Madras Presidency. Rises in the mountains west of the Támarasseri Pass, in latitude 11° 30′ 0″ N., and longitude 75° 56′ 0″ E., and, after a devious course of 30 miles through Malabár District, flows into the extensive backwater which communicates with the sea near Elattúr town, in latitude 11° 20′ 30″ N., and longitude 75° 45′ 45″ E. Near this town are several islets whence fine views of the Wainád Mountains are obtained; it is a favourite resort of the residents of Calicut.—*See* ALATTUR.

Elavarasanandal (*Iliyarasainendal*).—Group of agricultural hamlets in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 9° 12′ N., longitude 77° 50′ E. Population (1881) 14,390; number of houses, 3059.

Elephanta (called by the natives *Ghárápurí*).—Island in Bombay harbour, latitude 18° 57′ N., and longitude 73° E., about 6 miles from Bombay City and 4 from the shore of the mainland. Included in the Panwell Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. The island measures from 4 to 4½ miles in circumference, and consists of two long hills separated by a narrow valley; the superficial area varies from 6 to 4 square miles according as the tide is at ebb or flow. It was named *Elephanta* by the Portuguese, from a large stone-elephant which stood near the old landing-place on the south side of the island. This elephant was 13 feet 2 inches in length, and about 7 feet 4 inches high; but its head

and neck dropped off in 1814, and subsequently the body sank down into a shapeless mass of stones, which were removed in 1864 to the Victoria Gardens in Bombay. Near the point where the two hills approach each other, and not far to the south-east of the Great Cave, once stood the stone statue of a horse, described by an early writer as being 'so lively, with such a colour and carriage, and the shape finisht with that Exactness, that many have rather fancyed it, at a distance, a living Animal, than only a bare Representation.' This statue has disappeared. Except on the north-east and east, the hill-sides are covered with brushwood; in the hollows under the hill are clusters of mango, tamarind, and *karanja* trees. A broken line of palms stands out against the sky along the crest of the hill. Below is a belt of rice-land. The foreshore is of sand and mud, bare and black, with a fringe of mangrove bushes. At one period, from the 3rd to perhaps the 10th century, the island is supposed to have been the site of a city, and a place of religious resort. Some archæologists would place here the Maurya city of Purí. The Caves are the chief objects of interest; but in the rice-fields to the east of the northern or Shet *bandar* (landing-place), brick and stone foundations, broken pillars, fallen statues of Siva, and other traces of an ancient city have been found. The landing-place is now on the north-west of the island. Steam launches or sailing boats, which can be hired at the Apollo Bunder, Bombay, run to Elephanta in about an hour; and a small steamer can lie alongside the pier which has been built at the landing-place.

The island is greatly resorted to by visitors to the far-famed rock-caves; in 1880–81 the number reached 5400. Of these wonderful excavations, four are complete or nearly so; a fifth is a large cave now much filled up, with only rough masses of stone left to support the roof; and a sixth is merely the beginning of the front of what seems to have been intended for a very small excavation—possibly two or three cells for recluses. The most important and most frequently visited of these Brahmanic rock-temples is the Great Cave, which is situated in the western or larger of the two hills of the island, at an elevation of about 250 feet above high-water level. The entrance is reached by a winding path about three-quarters of a mile in length from the landing-place. The cave faces the north, and is entirely hewn out of a hard compact variety of trap rock. From the front entrance to the back it measures about 130 feet, and its length from the east to the west entrance is the same. It does not, however, occupy the entire square of this area. What may be called the porticoes, or the three open sides, are only about 54 feet long and 16½ feet deep. Omitting these and the back aisle, immediately in front of three of the principal sculptured compartments, which is of about the same dimen-

sions as each portico, the body of the cave may be considered as a square of about 91 feet each way, supported by 6 rows of columns with 6 columns in each row, except at the corners, where the uniformity is broken on the west side to make room for the shrine or *sacellum*, which occupies a space equal to that enclosed by four of the columns. There were originally 26 columns, with 16 half-columns; but 8 of the separate pillars have been destroyed, and others are much injured. As neither the floor nor the roof is perfectly horizontal, they vary in height from 15 to 17 feet. The most striking of the sculptures is the famous colossal three-faced bust, or *trímurti*, at the back of the cave, facing the entrance. This is a representation of Siva in his threefold character of Creator, Preserver, and Destroyer; and all the other sculptures relate to the same god, the cave being, like every other Hindu rock-temple of Western India, a Sivaite one. The *trímurti* is 17 feet 10 inches in height; and a line drawn round the three heads at the level of the eyes measures 22 feet 9 inches in length. The length of the middle face (Vishnu's) is 4 feet 4 inches; those of the others (Brahma and Rúdra), 4 feet 1 inch and about 5 feet. In 1865, this unique bust was mutilated by some 'barbarian clothed in the garb of civilisation,' who broke off a portion of the noses of two of the faces; and since then some of the other sculptures in the temple have been similarly treated, so that it has been found necessary to place a sergeant and two native policemen to protect the cave. The *trímurti* is guarded by two gigantic *dwárapálas* or doorkeepers of rock, respectively 12 feet 9 inches and 13 feet 6 inches high; both figures are much defaced. The Linga chapel, on the right-hand side of the temple on entering, contains several *dwárapálas* and other figures; and two compartments on either side of the *trímurti* are also ornamented with numerous sculptured groups. There are several other compartments in the Great Cave, all containing interesting sculptures, of which it is impossible to give even a bare list in the limits here available. The reader who desires to pursue the subject cannot do better than consult the lucid and exhaustive account of Mr. Burgess (*The Rock Temples of Elephanta or Ghárápurí*, Bombay 1871), from which this article is chiefly condensed. 'The impression on the mind,' writes Mr. Burgess, 'may be imagined rather than described, when one enters the portico [of the Great Cave], passing from the glare and heat of tropical sunshine to the dim light and cool air of the temple, and realizes that he is under a vast roof of solid rock, that seems to be supported only by the ranges of massive columns that recede in the vistas on every side, some of which appear to have split or fallen under the tremendous superincumbent weight. And the feeling of strange uncertain awe that creeps over the mind is only prolonged when in the obscure light we begin to contemplate the

gigantic stony figures ranged along the walls from which they seem to start, and from the living rock of which they are hewn.' De Couto describes the stone of the mountain where the temples have been carved as of a grey colour. The same traveller, writing at the beginning of the 17th century, continues:—'But the whole body inside, the pillars, the figures, and everything else, was formerly covered with a coat of lime mixed with bitumen and other compositions, that made the temple bright and very beautiful, the features and workmanship showing very distinct, so that neither in silver nor in wax could such figures be engraved with greater nicety, fineness, or perfection.' At the present time there is no trace of this coating.

The Second Cave, which is situated a short distance to the south-east of the Great Temple, faces east-north-east, and is 109½ feet in length, including the chapel at the north end. The façade, which was nearly 80 feet in length, is completely destroyed, and the cave is so full of *débris* and so ruined by water that no proper estimate can now be formed of the appearance it originally represented. It contains at present only one sculptured group. At the south end of the portico of this cave is a large block of rock not hewn away, above which is a hole through a thin partition of rock into one of the cells of the Third Rock Temple. The proper entrance, however, is a little to the south. This cave is in an even more dilapidated condition than the second. The Fourth Temple, now known to the natives as 'Sítá Bái's Díwála,' is situated on the other hill of the island, and about 100 feet above the level of the Great Cave. It is in better preservation than those last mentioned, and had formerly a beautiful gate with a marble porch of exquisite workmanship; but these have now disappeared.

Sufficient data do not exist to enable us to fix with precision the date of the Elephanta Caves. Tradition attributes them variously to the Pándavas, to a king of Kánara named Bánásur, and to Alexander the Great; and many not less unreasonable conjectures have been hazarded regarding them. Mr. Fergusson concludes (for reasons for which the reader is referred to his *Rock-cut Temples of India*) that the Great Temple was excavated in the 10th century of our era; but Mr. Burgess, while admitting that there are grounds for this conclusion, is inclined to attribute them to the latter part of the 8th or to the 9th century. No inscription is now to be found in the caves. It is hoped, however, that the date and name of the excavator may yet be learned from a stone, taken to Europe about 1540 by the Portuguese Viceroy Dom Joao de Castro, which may one day be re-discovered and deciphered.

The Great Temple is still used on Sivaite festivals, and specially by Hindus of the Baniyá caste; and at the *Sivarátri*, the greatest of the Sivaite festivals, just before the first new moon falling after the middle

of February, a religious fair is held here. The view from the front of the great cave is very beautiful; and from the site of an old bungalow, not far from the porch, a fine prospect is commanded of Bombay harbour, with Butcher Island in the foreground.

Ellenábád (*Khariál*).—Town and municipality in Sírsa *tahsíl*, Sírsa District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 26′ N., and long. 75° 54′ E., on the banks of the Ghaggar, 23 miles west of Sírsa town. Founded in 1865 by Mr. Oliver, Deputy Commissioner, to replace the village of Khariál on the opposite side of the Ghaggar, founded some 40 years before by settlers from Bíkáner (Bickaneer) State, which had been washed away by floods. Mr. Oliver called the new town Ellenábád, but it is still commonly known to the people as Khariál. It is a small town, but notwithstanding a high death-rate, the population shows a steady increase at each successive Census. Population in 1881, 4131, namely, Hindus, 3455; Muhammadans, 555; and Jains, 121; number of houses, 631. A third-class municipality. Municipal income in 1882-83, £376; expenditure, £190. Export and import traffic in country produce and salt with Bíkáner State. Manufacture of coarse woollen cloth. Police outpost; dispensary. On the opposite side of the Ghaggar lie the ruins of old Khariál.

Ellichpur (*Ilichpur*).—District in the Commissionership of Berár, within the Haidarábád Assigned Districts, lying between 20° 50′ 30″ and 21° 46′ 30″ N. lat., and between 76° 40′ and 77° 54′ E. long. The most northerly District in the Berárs. Bounded on the north-west and north by Nimár, Hoshangábád, and Betul Districts of the Central Provinces; on the east by the Wardhá river and Amráoti District; and on the south and west by Amráoti and Akola Districts. Area, 2623 square miles; population (1881) 313,805. The administrative headquarters are at ELLICHPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The entire northern half of Ellichpur consists of a succession of hills and valleys known as the Melghát or Gáwilgarh Hills, a section of the Sátpura Mountains. The main ridge or watershed of the Sátpuras runs through the District from east to west, attaining its greatest elevation at Bairát, 3987 feet above sea-level. The southern portion of the District is flat, and drained by numerous small streams flowing into the Wárdha and Púrná rivers. The only present metalled road is that from Ellichpur town to Amráoti; but several other roads are under construction. The country roads and fair-weather tracks from village to village are passable for eight months in the year. In the hill country, the chief passes are by Hewra-deví, Komi, and Malhárá on the east, and by Dúlghát and Bingára on the west, of which those by Komi, Malhárá, and Dúlghát are practicable for wheeled vehicles. The country is well supplied with mango groves, and when the green crops cover it, has a very park-like appearance.

Population.—In 1867, a Census taken in Berár gave the population of Ellichpur District at 279,022. The Census of 1881 returned a population of 313,805; so that since the former year an increase of 34,783 has taken place. The more recent enumeration affords the following figures. Males number 162,590; females, 151,215. Density of population, 119·6 persons per square mile. Number of towns, 6; villages, 727; occupied houses, 58,091, and unoccupied, 3945. Houses per square mile, 23·6; persons per house, 5·4. Distributed according to religion, Hindus number 282,000; Muhammadans, 30,299; Jains, 1280; Christians, 197; Sikhs, 27; and Pársís, 2. According to caste, the Hindus are divided into Bráhmans (7422), Rájputs (4830), Kunbís, a cultivating caste (77,280), and 'others' unspecified (193,268). The strength of the Muhammadan tribes is as follows:—Shaikhs, 19,714; Patháns, 6453; Sayyids, 1801; Mughals, 565; unspecified (Arabs, Bhíls, Fakírs), 1766. Among the Christians the Roman Catholics number 119. In regard to occupation the adult males are classed in six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 5502; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 2607; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 2977; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including shepherds, 75,069; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 21,032; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 55,403. The population is mostly Hindu, and their favourite God not Vishnu, but Mahádeo. The languages spoken are Urdú, Maráthá, and Gond.

Agriculture and Commerce.—The principal agricultural products are cotton, *joár*, rice, and wheat (of excellent quality), gram, pulses, yams, and oil-seeds; and these, together with *ghí* and forest timber, comprise the chief exports of the District. Cotton is the staple of the valley, but mangoes, tamarinds, guavas, grapes, oranges, and pomegranates are cultivated in addition to the cereal crops. Tea is said to thrive in the Melghát. In 1882–83, 254,018 acres were under cotton; 207,458 acres under *joár*; 51,148 acres under wheat; and 4271 acres under tobacco. The imports are mainly English and country cloth, iron and copper utensils, tobacco, salt, sugar, etc.

As regards physical aspects and economic conditions, the MELGHAT, or Upper Tract, forms the most interesting part of Ellichpur District, and has been dealt with separately.

History.—The history of the District centres in Ellichpur town, which formed an important nucleus of Muhammadan influence in the Deccan. Tradition asserts that the city was founded by Rájá Il, a Jain, who came from Khánjáma Nagár, near Wádgáon, about 1058 A.D. Whatever may be the date of its foundation, the town holds

no mean rank among the ancient historical cities of India, and during a short period it was a well-known capital. It lost most of its local importance from the time when the first Nizám-ul-Mulk became supreme ruler in the Deccan, and the city was placed under a viceroy or governor. The first governor appointed was Iwáz Khán, who ruled for five years—from 1724 to 1728—and was succeeded by Sújáyat Khán (1729 to 1740), who quarrelled with the Maráthá Raghují Bhonsla, fought with him near Bhúgáon, and was killed in the battle. The Ellichpur treasury on that occasion was plundered by the victor. Sharíf Khán next succeeded, and held office from 1741 to 1752. He claimed equality with the Nizám, who consequently deposed him. The Nizám's son, Alí Jáh Bahádur, was then appointed governor, but he administered by deputy, and was succeeded by Salábat Khán, who, though he only remained two years at Ellichpur, did much to improve the city. He enlarged the palace, made a public garden, and extended the ancient water-channels. He was a brave soldier, and on the war breaking out between the Nizám and Tipú Sultán, he was ordered to join the army, and distinguished himself there. He also saw service at the battle of Kardla, and was with General Wellesley's army in 1803. Námdár Khán, son of Salábat Khán, received, besides his *jágír* of 2 *lákhs* of rupees (£20,000), another of like value at Ellichpur, and managed his estate with the title of Nawáb until his death in 1843. He is said to have been placed specially under the protection of General Wellesley by his father, and he received a *jágír* for the payment of the Ellichpur brigade. After some years, getting into arrears, he gave up the greater part of his *jágír*, retaining only a rental of £3500. Námdár Khán was succeeded by his nephew, Ibráhim Khán, who lived till 1846, when his widow's father, Ghulám Hassan, was allowed to inherit the estate and the title of Nawáb, on payment of a *nazarána* of 7 *lákhs*. This sum he borrowed of a local banker, at whose suit the palace, with other property of the Nawáb at Ellichpur, is now under attachment. In 1853, the District was assigned to the British with the rest of Berár.

From the time that the Nizám-ul-Mulk declared his independence, the history of Ellichpur has been intimately connected with that of the family of Shádi Khán and Nasíb Khán, two Pathán *zamíndárs*, who originally came from Jaipur (Jeypore) to Haidarábád (Hyderábád) as horse dealers; and there attracting the notice of the Nizám, Násir Jang, rose to high importance. From their descendants the governors of Ellichpur were generally chosen; of these, Ismáil Khán, Salábat Khán, Ballál Khán, Námdár Khán, and Ibráhim Khán were governors of Ellichpur, Námdár Khán receiving the title of Nawáb.

Administration.—In 1882–83, the administration was carried on by 6 civil judges and 10 subordinate magistrates. The gross revenue was

£123,652, of which £92,251 was derived from the land. The number of police in 1882 was 260, maintained at a cost of £4299. Average distance between a village and its nearest court, 38 miles. The chief towns of the District are Ellichpur (26,728), Anjangáon (9842), Paratwada (9445), and Karajgáon (7330). Ellichpur is the only municipality. No railroads run through the District, and there are only 65½ miles of made road. Average daily population of District jail in 1882, 53. Number of schools in 1883, 135; of scholars, 5437; schools to each 100 square miles, 5. A printing-press issues a weekly newspaper at Ellichpur town.

Climate.—From November to March may be considered the cold season. Even then the sun is very powerful at mid-day. The nights are cold, but frost is rare. The rains commence about the 10th of June and last until the end of August. September and October are the most unhealthy months. Cholera, small-pox, fevers, ague, and a severe form of rheumatism called *wái*, are prevalent. For the climate of the MELGHAT, see that article. In 1882, the rainfall at Ellichpur town was 29·4 inches; average temperature, from 97° F. in May to 56° in December. There are 6 dispensaries; total patients relieved in 1882, 31,009, at a cost of £1240. Vaccinations in same year, 10,958. [For further information regarding Ellichpur, see the *Berár Gazetteer*, edited by Sir Alfred C. Lyall, K.C.B., Bombay, 1870; also *Settlement Report of the Amráoti and Ellichpur táluks*, by Major P. A. Elphinstone, Bombay, 1870; the *Berár Census Report* of 1881; and the *Berár Administration and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Ellichpur.—*Táluk* of Ellichpur District, Berár. Area, 469 square miles; contains 5 towns and 208 villages. Population (1881) 148,041, namely, 76,514 males and 71,527 females, or 315 persons per square mile. Hindus number 127,751; Muhammadans, 19,304; Jains, 785; Christians, 172; and Sikhs, 9. The agricultural population numbers 76,651. In 1883, the *táluk* contained 4 civil and 6 criminal courts, including the head-quarters' courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 193 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 411. Total revenue, £56,205, of which £40,359 is derived from land. Area occupied by cultivators, 258,110 acres.

Ellichpur. — Chief town and municipality of Ellichpur District, Berár. Lat. 21° 15′ 30″ N., long. 77° 29′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 26,728, namely, 13,346 males and 13,382 females. Of the total population, 19,092 were returned as Hindus, 7428 as Musalmáns, and 208 as Jains. Ellichpur was once a great and prosperous city, and is said to have contained 40,000 houses. It is not on any line of traffic, nor is it the centre of any particular trade, but it was the capital of a local Government, until the first Nizám, throwing off his dependence on Delhi, became supreme ruler

of the Deccan. Ellichpur was then placed under a viceroy or governor, and from this time it declined rapidly. The town contains several interesting buildings. The *dargáh* or burial shrine, in memory of Dalla Ráhman, built 400 years ago by one of the Báhmani kings, on the banks of the Bichan river, has a spacious *chabútra* or masonry platform, 11 bastions, and 4 gates, and is endowed by the State. The extensive palace, built by Salábat Khán and Ismáil Khán, and afterwards added to by Námdár Khán, has some good carving and stonework, but is rapidly falling to ruin. Some of the tombs of the Nawábs, commenced by Salábat Khán sixty or seventy years ago, are very handsome. A detached fort, called Sultán Garhi, built more than a hundred years ago by Sultán Khán, and a well (said to be 500 years old) called Mamdel Sháh, built of stone finely cut, are also worthy of notice. An English-Maráthí school is maintained, and also a school for girls. Police stations, dispensary, etc. Municipal revenue in 1881, £1487; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1d. per head of population within municipal limits.

About 2 miles from the city, on the Bichan stream, lies PARATWADA, the military cantonment and civil station. A force of all arms of the Haidarábád Contingent is generally stationed here. In 1882–83 there were 73 cavalry, a battery of artillery with 125 men, and 765 infantry. The cantonment is well laid out; the hills in the background give it an attractive appearance, but the site is low, and it lies too near the hills to be quite healthy. A police station and reserve guard are located in the *bázár*. English school and two others in the *bázár*—one for boys and one for girls. A Government garden has also been formed. The courts of the Deputy Commissioner, and of two Assistant Commissioners, with a treasury, are situated here. The population varies with the strength of the troops; in 1881 the total was 9445.

Ellora (*Eluru* or *Verul*).—Village in the Nizám's Dominions, Haidarábád, Deccan. Lat. 20° 2′ N., long. 75° 13′ E. Distant north-west from Aurangábád 13 miles, from Daulatábád 7 miles. Population (1881) 742. The village is partly walled, and contains a Muhammadan shrine famed throughout the Deccan for its marvellous healing powers. Ellora is famous for its rock-caves and temples. These contain, besides the symbols of Sanskrit mythology and statues of the Hindu deities, several Jain and Buddhist objects of worship.

The road from Aurangábád to the caves winds round the base of the fortress of Daulatábád, and traverses the Pípal *ghát* to Raoza, below which the caves are excavated. The Pípal *ghát*, or road upward, is so called from the *pípal* or sacred trees of the Hindus which line its sides. Half-way up the arduous ascent stand two pillars inscribed with the names of some nobles of the Court of Aurangzeb, who are supposed to have paved the road to the caves.

The caves are first mentioned by Mahsudi, the Arabic geographer of the 10th century, but merely as a celebrated place of pilgrimage. They were visited in 1306 by Alá-ud-dín or his generals, when, as Dow (*History of Hindostan*) relates, the capture occurred of a Hindu princess of Gujarát, who was here in concealment from the Muhammadans, but was afterwards carried to Delhi and married to the Emperor's son. Thevenot is said to be the first European who has described the caves; in the quaint style of the traveller of his period (1667) he details a visit to the 'Pagods of Elora.' The hill or plateau in which the caves are situated is crescent-shaped. Contrasting the caves of Ellora and Ajantá, Mr. Fergusson writes: 'Architecturally the Ellora caves differ from those of Ajantá, in consequence of their being excavated in the sloping sides of a hill, and not in a nearly perpendicular cliff. From this formation of the ground, almost all the caves at Ellora have court-yards in front of them. Frequently, also, an outer wall of rock, with an entrance through it, is left standing; so that the caves are not generally seen from the outside at all, and a person might pass along their front without being aware of their existence, unless warned of the fact.' The caves extend along the face of the hill for a mile and a quarter. They are divided into three distinct series, the Buddhist, the Bráhmanical, and the Jain, and are arranged almost chronologically.

'The caves,' writes Mr. Burgess, the Archæological Surveyor to the Government of Bombay, 'are excavated in the face of a hill, or rather the scarp of a large plateau, and run nearly north and south for about a mile and a quarter, the scarp at each end of this interval throwing out a horn towards the west. It is where the scarp at the south end begins to turn to the west that the earliest caves—a group of Buddhistic ones—are situated; and in the north horn is the Indra Sabhá or Jain group, the other extremity of the series. The ascent of the *ghát* passes up the south side of Kailás, the third of the Bráhmanical group, and over the roof of the Dás Avatára, the second of them. Sixteen caves lie to the south of Kailás, and nearly as many to the north, but the latter are scattered over a greater distance.

'Most of the caves have got distinguishing names from the local Bráhmans; but it may be quite as convenient, for the sake of reference, to number them from south to north, beginning with the Buddhist caves, of which there are twelve, and passing through the Bráhmanical series, of which seventeen are below the brow of the scarp, and a large number of smaller ones above, and ending with the Jain ones, of which there are five at the extreme north. There are also some cells and a colossal Jain image on the north side of the same spur in which is the Indra Sabhá.'

The chief building, called the Kailás—a perfect Dravidian temple, complete in all its parts—is characterised by Fergusson (*History of*

Indian and Eastern Architecture, p. 334) as one of the most wonderful and interesting monuments of architectural art in India. 'Its beauty and singularity,' continues Mr. Fergusson, 'always excited the astonishment of travellers, and in consequence it is better known than almost any other structure in that country from the numerous views and sketches of it that have been published. . . . It is not a mere interior chamber cut in the rock, but is a model of a complete temple such as might have been erected on the plain. In other words, the rock has been cut away externally as well as internally.' This wonderful structure, of which a detailed account is given by Fergusson (*loc. cit.*), measures 138 feet in front; the interior is 247 feet in length by 150 feet in breadth, the height in some places being 100 feet. This temple, as well as the others (which are also described by Fergusson), is said to have been built about the 8th century by Rájá Edu of Ellichpur—by whom the town of Ellora was founded—as a thankoffering for a cure effected by the waters of a spring near the place.

'All the sculptures and the whole architectural style of the central temple,' says Mr. Burgess, the Archæological Surveyor of Bombay, 'impress me with the conviction that it is later than the Pápanáth temple at Pattadkal, but probably earlier than the great Sivaite temple of Virúpákshádeva there. It has at one time all been painted in a style befitting its elaborateness of sculpture. This painting has been renewed again and again, perhaps in a continuous succession of debased styles, the latest certainly poor enough. But there are still some bits in the roof of the porch, of two or three successive coatings, that would compare favourably even among many of the Ajantá paintings. The lofty basement of the temple is of itself a remarkable conception, with its row of huge elephants and *sárdulas* or lions, griffins, etc., in every possible attitude, tearing one another or feeding. And then the great hall above, with its sixteen pillars and more pilasters, all carved with different details of sculpture; its balcony porches at the sides, and double pavilions before the front porch; its vestibule to the sanctuary, with large sculptures on each side; and its five shrines round the outside of the principal one and on the same platform, all testify to the attempt made to rival and outdo all previous temples of the kind.

'Dedicated to Siva, it is surrounded with figures also of Vishnu and the whole Puránic pantheon. Its sculptures bear testimony to the prevalence of the eclectic Smartta school. The interior, and parts at least, if not the whole, of the exterior, have been plastered over and painted; and, where this has not very long ago peeled off, has had the effect of preserving the stone inside from the smoke of wandering *jogís'* and travellers' fires, with which it must for ages have been saturated.

'Unlike any of the preceding cave-temples, Kailás is a great monolithic temple, isolated from surrounding rock, and carved outside as well

as in. It stands in a great court averaging 154 feet wide by 276 feet long at the level of the base, entirely cut out of the solid rock, and with a scarp 107 feet high at the back. In front of this court a curtain has been left, carved on the outside with the monstrous forms of Siva and Vishnu and their congeners, and with rooms inside it. It is pierced in the centre by an entrance passage with rooms on each side. Passing this, the visitor is met by a large sculpture of Lakshmi over the lotuses, with her attendant elephants. There are some letters and a date on the leaves of the lotus, on which she sits, but illegible, and probably belonging to the 15th century. On the bases of the pilasters on each side have been inscriptions in characters of the 8th century. As we enter, to right and left is the front portion of the court, which is a few feet lower than the rest, and at the north and south ends of which stand two gigantic elephants,—that on the south much mutilated. Turning again to the east and ascending a few steps, we enter the great court occupied by the temple, whose base measures 164 feet from east to west, by 109 feet where widest from north to south. In front of it, and connected by a bridge, is a *mandapa* for the Nandi, and on each side of this *mandap* stands a pillar or *dvajadand*—"ensign staff"—45 feet high, or with what remains of the *trisula* of Siva on the top, a total height of about 49 feet.'

Ellora was ceded in 1818 by Holkar to the British, who transferred it to the Nizám, in 1822, by the treaty of Haidarábád.

Ellore (*Elúr*).—*Táluk* of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 729 square miles, containing 248 villages and 29,015 houses. Population (1881) 149,308, namely, 140,689 Hindus, 8019 Muhammadans, and 600 Christians. No other *táluk* of the District contains so many Muhammadans. The country is to a great extent covered with jungle. The arable land amounts to 118,381 acres, paying a revenue of £23,804, while other sources (water cess, quit-rent, etc.) raise the total revenue to £26,587. The canals that pass through the *táluk* connect its chief town, ELLORE, with Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry), etc., and besides irrigating the *táluk*, afford a highway for the export of grain. In 1883, the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 17; regular police, 199 men.

Ellore (*Elúru; elu*, 'ruling'—*uru*, 'town').—Town in Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Latitude 16° 42′ 35″ N., longitude 81° 9′ 5″ E. Population (1881) 25,092, namely, Hindus, 20,391; Muhammadans, 4453; and Christians, 248. Number of houses, 4133. Situated 255 miles north of Madras, on the Tammalér river. The high-level canal from Vijeshwaram passes through the *táluk*, and joins the Bezwára canal at Ellore, where the waters of the Godávari and Kistna unite. The Ellore Canal from Chittapetta to Ellore is 40 miles

in length. As the head-quarters of the *táluk*, Ellore possesses the usual subordinate magisterial and judicial establishments, police station, post-office, school, etc.; it is also the station of the Head Assistant Collector, and of a local fund engineer. Both Church Missionary and Roman Catholic missions are established here. The municipal income for 1883 was £1991; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head of the population. Manufactures of woollen carpets and saltpetre are the chief industries. Historically Ellore is of importance as having been the capital of the NORTHERN CIRCARS. Originally portion of the Vengi kingdom, it probably formed part of the Orissa conquests till 1480, when it was occupied by the Muhammadans. Under the supremacy of the Vijayanagar kingdom, Ellore became once more Hindu; but early in the 16th century it was captured by Kutab Sháh of Golconda, by whom and his successors it was held against the Rájputs of Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and the Reddis and Kois of the surrounding country, who perpetually harassed the garrison, until the Golconda power was merged in the Subah or Muhammadan viceroyalty of the Deccan. In later history, Ellore shared in the vicissitudes common to the other Circars, being in turn possessed by native princes, by the French, and finally by the British. (*See* NORTHERN CIRCARS.) The ruins of the old fort, built from the Buddhist remains of the ancient capital of the Chalukyas at Vengi, 8 miles to the north, are still visible near the town; the modern barracks now form the offices of the sub-divisional officer. The heat here is remarkable, even for so hot a District, the thermometer rising to 110° F. in the shade.

Eminábád.—Town in the Gujránwála *tahsíl* of Gujránwála District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 32° 2′ 15″ N., and long. 74° 18′ E., on the Grand Trunk Road, 9 miles south of Gujránwála town. Population (1881) 5886, namely, 1764 Hindus, 4103 Muhammadans, and 19 Sikhs. Now a town of small importance, but perhaps the most ancient in the District; particulars, however, of its early history are not recorded. It figures in the *Ain-i-Akbarí*, as the head-quarters of a large *mahál* or fiscal division, and contains some fine ruined specimens of Muhammadan architecture, dating from imperial times. Residence of a leading Kshatriyá family, whose members include Jawála Sahai, minister to the Mahárájá of Jammu (Kashmír), and the late Diwán Hárí Chánd. The town has several streets, a grain market, police station, and school-house. Trade insignificant. Considerable annual fair for three days in the month of Baisákh (about the middle of April). A third-class municipality, with an income in 1882–83 of £210; average incidence of taxation, 8½d. per head of the population.

English Bázár (or *Angrazábád*).—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Maldah District, Bengal. Situated in lat. 25° 0′ 14″ N., and long. 88° 11′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 12,430,

namely, Hindus, 7268; Muhammadans, 5146; and 'others,' 16; area of site, 1500 acres. Municipal income (1881–82), £696, of which £498 was derived from taxation; incidence of municipal taxation, 9½d. per head; expenditure, £716. The town consists of a series of trading villages lining the right bank of the Mahánandá for a considerable distance. Being an open elevated site on the river bank in a mulberry-growing country, it was chosen at an early date as the site of one of the Company's silk factories. The French and the Dutch had also settlements here; and the residence of the superintendent of police was formerly a Dutch convent. The East India Company's factory was of considerable importance during the last quarter of the 17th century, and its 'Diaries and Consultations,' from 1685 to 1693 (with breaks), are still preserved in the India Office under the title of 'Maulda and Englesavad.' In 1770, English Bázár was fixed upon for a commercial residency, and retained its importance until the discontinuance of the Company's private trade in 1836. An extensive trade in grain is now carried on. The largest building is the public Cutcherry (Kachárí) or Court-House, originally a factory of the East India Company. It is regularly fortified, and within its walls are all the public offices of the District. A small embankment protects the town from inundations, which are of frequent occurrence in Maldah District.

Eng-rai (*In-rai*).—Town in Bassein District, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the Daga river, in latitude 17° 10′ 30″ N., and longitude 95° 18′ 30″ E. Formerly the head-quarters of the extra-Assistant Commissioner.

Eng-rai-gyí (*In-rai-gyí*).—Lake in Bassein District, British Burma; about 3 miles in circumference, with a fairly uniform breadth of from 280 to 300 yards, and a depth of from 20 to 45 feet in the centre. It is connected with the Daga branch of the Bassein by a small outlet, which serves to replenish the lake from the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) and to carry off the surplus water. This lake is by some supposed to be a former portion of the bed of the Daga, by others it is thought to have been caused by a slip of the lower-lying beds, totally independent of fluvial action. It is very valuable as a preserve for fish, and proved an important source of revenue to the Burmese Government, who exacted an annual tax of £780 from the *Paineng* or hereditary chief of the lake, who had sole authority over the villagers employed in the fishery. Each villager had the right of investing his capital in the general working of the fishery, and received a share in the out-turn at the end of the season proportionate to the sum subscribed. The process of dragging the lake is performed by floating capstans worked by hawsers of jungle rope attached to a frame, and occupies three months' working, at the rate of about 45 fathoms each day. The fishing begins with the full moon in June, when the temperature of the water has been

reduced by the first showers of the monsoon. The number of fish caught is never below 70,000 to 80,000 of all kinds; the principal belonging for the most part to the genera of Cerca, Cyprinus, Gobio, Labeo, Cimelodus, Cirrhinus, Cyprinodon, and Silurus. The largest specimens weigh about 56 lbs. each. Crocodiles of all sizes are found in the drag-net, but no casualty has been known to have been caused by them. Some 8000 to 10,000 persons are engaged in the taking and disposal of the fish, of which about 40 tons are annually sold on the spot.

Ennore (*Ennúr*).—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency; also called Kattivákam. Latitude 13° 13′ 40″ N., longitude 80° 21′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 1453, namely, 1418 Hindus, 26 Muhammadans, and 9 Christians. Number of houses, 233. Ennore is in reality only a fishing village; but being a favourite resort of Europeans from Madras, it contains several bungalows, built on the strip of land between the sea and the back-water; and, until lately, the oldest club-house in India. Situated 12 miles north of Madras, to which there is some export of the salt manufactured here. Manufacture of salt in 1878, 36,000 tons. In 1769, Haidar Alí encamped near Ennore.

Entalli.—Suburb of Calcutta, Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 33′ 15″ N., long. 88° 24′ 30″ E. Contains an English school, a large native school belonging to the Baptists, and a Roman Catholic convent.

Eran.—Chief village of a tract of the same name in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, 48 miles west of Ságar town. Lat. 24° 5′ 30″ N., long. 78° 15′ E. Population (1881) 339; number of houses, 84. Eran is remarkable for its monumental remains, attributed to Rájá Bharat. The chief of these is a rudely-shaped image of Vishnu in his manifestation as the boar. The animal stands about 10 feet high, with his snout in the air. Successive rows of small figures in short tunics and high caps cover the body; while a band, ornamented with seated figures, encircles the neck. The tip of the projecting tongue supports a human figure erect. The breast bears an inscription, and, as at Oodehghir (Udaigarh), a young female hangs by the arm from the right tusk. On one side of Vishnu stands a four-armed deity, more than 12 feet high, with girt loins, a high cap, and round his neck and reaching to his feet a thick ornamental cord. On the columns before this statue are seen figures weaving the sacred thread, with twisted snakes, elephants, nude female figures, seated Buddhas, faces of satyrs, and other devices. Besides these and other remains, there are three figures of crouching lions; and in front of them, a pillar, and a small temple half buried in the soil. The pillar has a broad base, for about 15 feet the shaft is square, and for about 10 feet more round. The bell capital occupies 2 feet, and sustains a pedestal about 3 feet

high, on which stands a small double-fronted four-armed statue. From the inscription on this column the date of Buddha Gupta, of the great Gupta line of Magadha, has been established. Police outpost station.

Erandol.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by the Tápti; on the north-east and east by the Gírna; on the south by Páchora; and on the west by Amalner. Area, 460 square miles; contains 2 towns and 196 villages. Population (1881) 90,872, namely, 46,296 males and 44,576 females. Hindus number 76,379; Muhammadans, 9327; 'others,' 5166. The soil is part of the fertile Tápti valley. Mango groves are scattered all through the Sub-division. Besides water-supply from the rivers, there were in 1879–80, 2061 wells of which the average depth was 35 feet. The Sub-division of Erandol was surveyed and settled in 1858–59. There were then 8774 holdings with an average area of 21·2 acres, and an average rental of £2, 7s. 5½d. In 1879, there were under tillage 193,256 acres, of which 37 per cent. were under *joár* (millet), and 34 per cent. under cotton. Rice, wheat, pulses, and oil-seeds occupied the remainder. Land revenue (1883), £24,828.

Erandol.—Chief town of the Sub-division of Erandol in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Anjáni river, 40 miles east of Dhuliá. Latitude 20° 56′ N., longitude 75° 20′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 11,501, namely, 8681 Hindus, 2558 Muhammadans, and 13 Jains. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £586; rate of taxation, 1s. per head. Sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary. Erandol is connected by metalled roads with the towns of Dhuliá, Dharangáon (7 miles north-west), and with the railway station of Mahásáwar (9 miles south-east). It is a place of some antiquity, and was formerly celebrated for its manufacture of coarse native paper, an industry which still survives to a limited extent. There is a considerable local trade in cotton, indigo, and grain; the chief market being Jalgáon, a station 14 miles north-east.

Ernád (*Eránádu* or *Erádinád*).—*Táluk* in Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Area, 811 square miles, containing 52 villages. Houses, 54,415. Population (1881) 296,143, namely, 148,521 males and 147,622 females. Hindus number 145,451; Muhammadans, 149,987; Christians, 699; and 'others,' 6. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 13; regular police, 112 men. Land revenue, £20,005.

Ernagúdem.—*Táluk* of Godávari District, Madras Presidency.—*See* YERNAGUDEM.

Ernakolam (*Yernacoulam*).—Town in Cochin State, Madras; situated on the back-water 2 miles east of, and opposite to, Cochin town. Latitude 9° 58′ 55″ N., longitude 76° 19′ 21″ E. The chief officials of the State reside here; and the town also contains the

judicial courts, several public offices, and a *Dárbár* palace, where the British Resident pays his state visits to the Rájá of Cochin. Some of the roads are metalled, and there are two churches. The suburb of Anjikaimal (so called in memory of five chiefs who at a distant period of history shared the surrounding country) contains a large and regularly-built market, and has a considerable trade, chiefly in the hands of the Jews and the Konkánís.

Erniál.—Town in the Erniál *táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Latitude 8° 12′ 12″ N., longitude 77° 21′ 31″ E. Population (1881) 18,420; houses, 4429. As the head-quarters of the Sub-division, it possesses the usual subordinate native establishments. The London Missionary Society has a school here.

Erode (*Irodu*).—*Táluk* of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Bounded on the north by the Bhawání; on the north-east and east by the Káveri (Cauvery); and on the south by the Noyel river. The *táluk* has an area of 599 square miles, and contains 1 town and 193 villages, with their hamlets. Houses, 45,427. Population (1881) 195,669, namely, 96,619 males and 99,050 females. Hindus number 192,148; Muhammadans, 2722; Christians, 783; and 'others,' 16. The occupied area is 302,590 acres, and the assessment about £42,182. The land is chiefly 'dry' land, only 8882 acres being irrigated from channels and tanks. The chief source of irrigation is the Kalingarayan channel, led from an anicut at Bhaváni, which traverses the eastern border for 57 miles; it irrigates 7283 acres, assessed at £9820. There are a few rain-fed tanks and several thousand private irrigation wells. The cultivation under wells is good, and the soil fair; but the uplands are poor in soil and badly tilled. The fields are, however, almost universally hedged. The assessment averages 2s. 2d. per acre for 'dry,' and £1, 3s. 7½d. for 'wet' lands. Eighty-three per cent. of the soil is red sand. There are no forests or hills, except three small ridges of very slight elevation. The population is chiefly agricultural and Hindu. Bráhmans are rarely found, except along the Káveri. The produce of the *táluk* consists chiefly of cereals, pulses, oil-seeds, cotton (about 40,000 acres), chillies, tobacco, turmeric, jaggery, saltpetre, gunny, and coarse cloths; carts are largely made at Erode town, and building materials are cheap. Chief places are ERODE town, Perúndurai, Chennimalai, Kodumúdi, and Arasalúr. The *táluk* is well supplied with the means of communication; the trunk road from Madras passes through it, *viâ* Perúndurai; and it has two railways—the Madras and the South Indian lines—which meet at Erode town. Weekly markets abound, those at Erode, Kunnattúr, Perúndurai, and Kanakapúram being important. In 1883 there were 3 criminal courts and 1 civil; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 81 men. The *táluk* contains 3 post-offices, a fair number of schools, including a second-class middle school and a large municipal

primary school at Erode, and a municipal hospital. Arrack and toddy shops number 78 and 107 respectively. The *táluk* is hot but not unhealthy, and its rainfall is scanty.

Erode (*Iródu*).—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Situated in latitude 11° 20′ 29″ N., and longitude 77° 46′ 3″ E., on the Káveri (Cauvery) river, at the extreme east of the District, 243 miles by rail from Madras, 85 from Trichinopoli, 60 from Coimbatore, and 37 from Salem. Houses, 1886. Population (1881) 9864, of whom 8338 are Hindus, chiefly Vellálars, 1084 Muhammadans, 439 Christians, and 3 'others.' Being the head-quarters of the Erode *táluk*, it possesses the usual subordinate judicial establishments, police station, school, telegraph and post-office. It is now also the head-quarters of the District Sub-Collector, and is a municipality, with an income (1883) of £1019, chiefly from house-tax and tolls. In the time of Haidar Alí, Erode contained 3000 houses; but in consequence of successive Maráthá, Mysore, and British invasions, the town became almost utterly deserted and ruined. As soon, however, as peace was signed, the people returned to a place with so many advantages in position and fertility; and within a year it had 400 houses, and a population of over 2000. The garrison was withdrawn in 1807, and the ruined fort levelled as a relief work during the famine of 1877. The space enclosed within the ramparts had been long before occupied by houses, with a cotton-press and saltpetre warehouse. The trade of Erode consists chiefly in the export of cotton, chillies, saltpetre, and rice; it is an important railway centre, and is rapidly rising in importance. Roads to Karúr, Perandurai, and Mysore—one *viâ* the Hassanúr *ghát*, the other *viâ* the Barghar *ghát*—radiate from it, serving as feeders to the railway, which has here a station at the junction of the Madras, South-Western, and South Indian lines. About 1½ miles east of the town a girder bridge of 22 arches crosses the Káveri, 1536 feet in length, constructed at a cost of £40,875. The town is well built, and besides other public edifices has a good court-house and sub-jail, erected at a cost of £3000.

Eruvádi.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5171, namely, Hindus, 2416; Muhammadans, 2522; and Christians, 233.

Etah.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 19′ 42″ and 28° 1′ 39″ N. lat., and 78° 27′ 26″ and 79° 19′ 23″ E. long. Etah is the northernmost District of the Agra Division. It is bounded on the north by the river Ganges, separating it from Budáun District; on the west by Alígarh and Agra; on the south by Máinpuri; and on the east by Farukhábád. Area, 1738 square miles; population (1881) 756,523. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of ETAH, but KASGANJ is the chief centre of population and commerce.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Etah lies on the eastern edge of the middle Doáb, where the elevated plateau composing that fertile tract dips into the valley of the Ganges. From the banks of the great river to the terraces which form the escarpment of the upland plain stretches a belt of level land known as the *tarái*, bounded on the west by the Búrh Gangá, or ancient bed of the river. The abandoned channel is still marked by a line of swamps and hollows, which receive the surface drainage of the neighbouring fields. The whole *tarái*, lying between the former and the present stream of the river, is covered with a rich alluvial deposit, and abundantly supplied with water, so that artificial irrigation is unnecessary. But in its widest portion, the crust of alluvial matter becomes thinner, and sandy undulating downs begin to crop up. Above the marshy bed of the Búrh Gangá rises the old high bank of the ancient channel, which leads at once to the central Doáb plateau. This upland tract exhibits the same natural characteristics in Etah as elsewhere, being for the most part a level plain, interspersed with hillocks of yellow sand and patches of rich loam, which latter are generally chosen as village sites; but it is neither so fertile nor so highly cultivated as in the Meerut (Merath) Division to the north, owing to the want of irrigation. The Lower Ganges Canal, however, recently completed, will, it is hoped, supply all the needs of Etah; and the District may be expected before long to rival the fertility of Alígarh and Bulandshahr. The central plateau is bounded to the west by the deep gorge of the KALI NADI, a tributary of the Ganges, which provides Etah with a main drainage channel, and, occasionally overflowing its banks after heavy rain, fertilizes the fallow land with a rich layer of fine silt and decaying vegetable matter. The angle to the south-west of the Káli is by far the most fruitful portion of the District. Naturally composed of a strong and rich clay, it is intersected by the Cawnpur and Etáwah branches of the Ganges Canal, which supply water to the fields by 138 miles of distributary streams. It is much cut up, however, by wide stretches of *úsar* plain, which are absolutely barren of all vegetation. Indeed, the whole District is distinguished for its bare and treeless appearance. The larger villages and towns are surrounded with pleasant groves, but there are few woods of any extent, and very little jungle-land. Over one-third of the area is returned as uncultivated, of which one-half is cultivable, and that will doubtless be reclaimed as soon as the irrigation schemes now on foot are completed. The remainder consists either of dry saline *úsar* plain or barren flats of *bhúr* waste. As a whole, while Etah cannot boast of such advantages as the Districts which lie above it in the Doáb, it is more flourishing than the majority of its neighbours to the south and west.

History.—Tradition points to the valley of the Káli as the seat of

populous cities in mythical times; and the accounts of the Buddhist pilgrims from China, in the 5th and 7th centuries A.D., bear out to some extent the legendary statements. The District was at that time rich in temples and monasteries, as befitted a place which had been honoured by the personal presence of Buddha, many incidents in whose life are connected with the ruined mounds of ATRANJI. From the 6th to the 10th century, Etah appears to have been held by Ahírs and Bhars, and then to have been occupied by the Rájputs, during the course of their great immigration eastwards. When Mahmúd of Ghazní marched against the kingdom of Kanauj in 1017, he must have taken Etah on his route; and the District must again have been traversed nearly two centuries later by the army of the second great Musalmán conqueror, Muhammad Ghori, on its way to the final battle with the Rahtor Rájá, Jai Chánd, in the Jumna ravines of Agra. From that time forward, Etah remained a dependency of the Musalmán rulers at Kanauj or Koil, and never again fell into the hands of a Hindu prince. But the District was then a wild expanse of *dhák* forest, studded with the mud forts of robber chieftains and the villages of a lawless peasantry, and such it remained until the introduction of British rule. Patiáli, the then principal town, lying on the old channel of the Ganges, was infested by robber hordes whose misdeeds roused the indignation of Sultán Balban, about the year 1270. The Sultán proceeded in person to Patiáli, and opened the roads to Hindustán for merchants and caravans by placing strong garrisons in the fortresses of the banditti, so that 'Musalmáns and guardians of the way took the place of highway robbers.' The principal Muhammadan inhabitants still trace the origin of their families to this period. During the frequent Musalmán invasions of the 15th century, Etah was constantly exposed to the ravages of both parties, as it lay on the direct route to the great cities on the Ganges. Akbar included it in his *sarkárs* of Kanauj, Koil, and Budáun, and used it as an outpost against the refractory Hindus of Máinpurí. At the end of the last century, Etah passed into the hands of the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, and formed a portion of the territory ceded to the British in 1801–2. It was then distributed among the adjoining Districts of ETAWAH, FARUKHABAD, ALIGARH, and MORADABAD. The outlying *parganás* which compose the present District were from the first so remote from the central authority that it was found necessary in 1811 to place a subordinate European officer at Patiáli, with criminal jurisdiction over the surrounding country. After many changes of an intricate sort, the condition of the *parganás* around Etah attracted serious consideration in 1845. The Ahírs and Aheriyas carried on a system of organized plunder; and *dakáitis* (gang-robberies), planned by an outlaw from the Jumna ravines of Máinpurí, became so frequent as to call

for more efficient police arrangements. Much of the country was still covered with *dhák* jungle, and studded with mud forts, moated and fenced on every side. The landowners even considered it a mark of disrespect to call for the revenue without some show of force to back up their demand. Accordingly, a Deputy Collector and Joint Magistrate was stationed at Patiáli in 1845; and in 1856 the head-quarters were transferred to a more accessible position at Etah, a village on the Grand Trunk Road, from which the District takes its name. The succeeding year saw the outbreak at Meerut (Merath), which quickly developed into the Mutiny of 1857. As soon as the troops garrisoned at Etah received intelligence of the revolt at Alígarh, the whole body left the station without any disturbance. As there was no place of strength in the town, and no force with which to defend it, the Magistrate found it necessary to withdraw until the mutineers from Máinpurí and Etáwah had passed through. After a gallant but unsuccessful attempt to hold Kásganj, the whole District was abandoned on the 7th of June, and the officers reached Agra in safety. Damar Singh, Rájá of Etah, then set himself up as an independent ruler in the south of the District. As usual, however, rival claimants appeared in various quarters; and towards the end of July, the rebel Nawáb of Farukhábád took practical possession of the country for some months. On the approach of General Greathed's column, the rebels retired for a while, and Mr. Cocks was appointed Special Commissioner for Etah and Alígarh. The force at his disposal, however, was quite insufficient to restore order, and the rebels still continued to hold Kásganj. It was not till the 15th of December that Colonel Seaton's column attacked the rebels at Gangíri, and, after totally routing them, occupied Kásganj. By the middle of 1858, order was completely restored, and the peace of the District has not since been disturbed.

Population.—The population of Etah District in 1865 (then a smaller area than at present), according to the Census of that year, was returned at 614,351; in 1872 it was 703,527 on the then area, or 829,118 on the present area of the District. Since 1872 the population shows a considerable decrease, being returned in 1881 at 756,523, being 72,595, or 8·7 per cent., less than the number living on the same area nine years previously. This decrease is partially due to the scarcity and sickness which prevailed in 1878–79; but there appears little doubt that the population of Etah and the surrounding Districts, if not of the Provinces in general, has reached the stationary stage. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1739 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1489; houses, 88,543; total population, 756,523, namely, males 413,689, and females 342,834. These figures yield the following averages:—Proportion of males in total population, 54·5 per cent.;

average density of population, 435 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·85; persons per village, 508; houses per square mile, 50·9; persons per house, 8·5. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Etah is one of the most thoroughly Hindu Districts in the Doáb. The Hindus in 1881 numbered 674,463, or 89·9 per cent. of the whole population; and the Muhammadans, 76,774, or 10·1 per cent., the remainder consisting of 5152 Jains, 16 Sikhs, 117 Christians, and 1 Jew. Of the four great classes into which the Hindus are conventionally divided, the Bráhmans number 62,065 persons. They own a large portion of the District as *zamíndárs*, and most of them belong to the ancient Kanaujiya sub-division. The Rájputs are exceptionally numerous in Etah, being returned at 67,371. They are by far the most important landowning class in the District, and include many of the great territorial families. The Baniyás or trading castes are represented by 27,632 persons; they are a wealthy mercantile body, and own a considerable proportion of the land. The great mass of the Hindi population here, as elsewhere, belong to the lower castes of the Census returns. The Chamárs or despised skinners and leather-dressers are their most numerous tribe, forming the landless labouring class throughout the whole Doáb, where they have only just emerged under British rule from a state of rural serfdom. Number in 1881, 97,120. Next come the Ahírs (77,819), once the dominant race, and still the possessors of a large number of villages. The Káyasths, the first of the Súdra castes in social rank, are wealthy landholders, and numbered 9640 in 1881. The two great cultivating castes are the Lodhís, 72,549; and the Kachhís, 72,258 in number. The other Hindu castes numbering upwards of 10,000 in 1881 were the following —Gadáriyás, 28,860; Kahárs, 22,988; Barháis, 15,765; Nais, 14,281; Korís, 14,150; Bhangís, 13,426; Dhobís, 11,919; Kumbhárs, 10,983; and Telís, 10,679. The Musalmáns (76,774) still retain much of their landed possessions, and all, with the exception of 395, belong to the Sunní sect. Among the Muhammadans are included 409 Rájputs and 417 Mewatis by race. The Christian population included 36 Europeans, 51 Eurasians, 1 Armenian, and 29 native converts.

Distribution of the People into Town and Country.—About two-thirds of the adult male population are dependent upon the soil for their support, the District being strictly agricultural, and the population almost entirely rural. In 1881 there were 7 towns with a population exceeding 5000 persons, namely, ETAH, 8054; KASGANJ, 16,535; JALESAR, 15,609; SORON, 12,745; MARAHRA, 9271; ALIGANJ, 7436; and AWAH, 5679. Total urban population, 75,329, leaving 681,194 as representing the rural population. Of the 1489 villages and towns, 459 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 606 from two to five hundred; 295 from five hundred to a thousand; 98 from

one to two thousand; 13 from two to three thousand; 11 from three to five thousand; 4 from five to ten thousand; and 3 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into six main classes as follows:—Class (1) Professional, including the civil, military, and learned professions, 7531; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 1268; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 8226; (4) agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, sheep and cattle tenders, etc., 196,507; (5) industrial, including manufacturers and artisans, 47,365; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 19,681 general labourers, and 133,111 male children or persons of indefinite occupation), 152,792. The ordinary language of the people is Hindí.

Agriculture.—The principal crops grown in the District are wheat and other cereals, millets and pulses, cotton, sugar-cane, indigo, and poppy; the harvests are the usual *kharíf* and *rabí*, the former being the more important of the two. Of a total area of 1,112,829 acres in 1881–82, more than one-half, or 683,537 acres, were under cultivation; 206,773 acres cultivable waste; 9259 acres of grazing land; and 213,260 acres barren and uncultivable waste. The area occupied by the principal crops was distributed as follows:—Wheat, 129,900 acres; barley, 60,424 acres; indigo, 20,002 acres; cotton, 42,958 acres; sugar-cane, 15,158 acres; *joár*, 103,838 acres; *bájra*, 131,588 acres; Indian corn, 33,720 acres; and rice, 14,093 acres. The average out-turn of an acre of wheat is 13 *maunds*, or a little over 9 cwts., valued at £3. The employment of manure is almost universal, though a single application is expected to suffice for two successive harvests. As a rule, only one crop a year is raised on each plot, but cotton is often succeeded by tobacco or vegetables, and indigo by wheat or barley. Rotation of crops is rapidly supplanting the old wasteful habit of leaving the lands to lie fallow after exhausting products have been grown. Irrigation is extensively practised from wells and canals, though it has not kept pace with other agricultural improvements. The total area irrigated in 1881 was 263,197 acres, of which 183,293 acres were irrigated by private enterprise from wells, tanks, etc., and 79,944 acres from Government works. The recent completion of the Lower Ganges Canal, however, will doubtless effect an immense extension in the Government irrigated area. The area under sugar-cane has decreased in recent years, except where an abundant water-supply can be obtained from the canals which intersect the south-western corner of the District; but all the other export staples have been grown in larger quantities, while no corresponding diminution has taken place in the area devoted to food-stuffs. The cultivators are in comfortable circumstances, less wealthy than their neighbours

in the Meerut Division, but removed far above the squalid poverty of Bundelkhand. Temples and mosques are rare in Etah, a mound of earth being often the only place of worship in a village; while in Alígarh, beyond the northern boundary, handsome buildings for religious purposes are to be seen on every side. Cultivators with rights of occupancy hold 64 per cent. of the cultivated area, and tenants-at-will 21 per cent., while the remaining 15 per cent. is occupied by small proprietors who farm their own land. Rents are unusually low, chiefly owing to the jealous care with which Government has guarded the rights of hereditary tenants, and resisted all attempts at illegal enhancement. The average rates vary from 2s. 9d. to 7s. 1d. per acre, according to crop. The male adult agriculturists in 1881 numbered 194,399, cultivating an average of 3·54 acres each. The total population, however, dependent on the soil is returned at 511,519, or 67·6 per cent. of the entire District population. Of the total area of the District, 24·5 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 1714 square miles assessed for Government revenue. Total land revenue in 1881, including cesses and local rates levied on the land, £140,595, or an average of 4s. 1⅞d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £241,965, or an average of 7s. per cultivated acre. Wages ordinarily rule as follows:—Carpenters, masons, and blacksmiths, 6d. per diem; tailors, 4½d. per diem; coolies, water-carriers, etc., 3d. per diem. Agricultural labourers are generally paid in kind; when paid in cash, men get 3d., women 1½d., and children 3⅜d. per diem. Prices have risen steadily during the last thirty years. The average of ten years, ending in 1870, shows the following rates at Kásganj:—Wheat or gram, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; barley or *joár*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; *bájra*, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 1¾d. per cwt. Prices at Etah town ruled about 1 *ser* per rupee dearer than these quotations. The average rates in 1883 were as follow:—Wheat, 19½ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 9d. per cwt.; barley, 24⅓ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 7d. per cwt.; common rice, 14⅔ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 9d. per cwt.; *joár*, 22½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 11d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 22⅓ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 11d. per cwt.; gram, 23⅓ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 9d. per cwt. *Joár* and *bájra* form the ordinary food-grains of the population.

Natural Calamities.—Etah suffers from the ravages of locusts, white ants, and other destructive insects; and the cereal crops are liable to several kinds of blight. Floods also occasionally occur in the low-lying valley of the Ganges, and overwhelm the fertile soil with ridges of barren shingle. But the great enemy of Etah, as of all the Doáb, is drought, which has frequently produced severe famines. The last was that of 1860–61, known among the peasantry by the graphic title of the 'Seven-*ser* famine,' in which rice sold at the rate of 7 *sers* per

rupee, or 7 lbs. for a shilling. The people were forced to live upon wild fruits and vegetables, and even to extract food from grass seeds. The drought of 1868-69, however, was felt in Etah much less severely than in neighbouring Districts. Though both harvests were partial failures, the scarcity which ensued did not rise to the intensity of famine, and the highest quotation for wheat was only 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7¼d. per cwt. Famine rates are reached in this District when wheat sells at less than 12 *sers* per rupee, or more than 9s. 4d. per cwt. But it is hoped that the Lower Ganges Canal, recently completed, will secure the District in future from the extremity of famine.

Commerce, Trade, etc. — Etah has a considerable export trade in agricultural produce. In an average season the surplus for exportation is estimated to amount to the following quantities :—Rice, 100,000 *maunds*, or 73,469 cwts.; cleaned cotton, 46,909 *maunds*, or 34,463 cwts.; uncleaned cotton, 140,727 *maunds*, or 103,391 cwts.; wheat and barley, 1,831,725 *maunds*, or 1,345,757 cwts., besides a large quantity of pulses and millets. The only important manufacture is that of indigo, which is carried on in about 200 factories, some of them under European management. Sugar is refined to a large extent in the northern part of the District; and the *parganás* lying on the banks of the Ganges and the Búrh Gangá prepare salt from the saline earth which is common everywhere. Ropes and coarse sacking are also made from the hemp of the country, and exported as far as Calcutta. Before the Mutiny, firearms of finished workmanship and elaborately inlaid with silver were manufactured in the District; but since the Disarming Act this trade has greatly declined. A religious fair is held once a year at Soron, when the Hindus bathe in the purifying waters of the Búrh Gangá, and lay in their annual stock of clothing and household utensils. Another fair is held at Kakora in Budáun District, just opposite the village of Kádirganj in Etah; and although the traders congregate chiefly on the Budáun bank, many pilgrims, whose object is purely religious, bathe and remain at Kádirganj. No railway passes through the District, but a good metalled road connects the headquarters at Etah with the Shikohábád station on the East Indian line, 35 miles distant. There are altogether 541 miles of first, second, and third-class roads in the District. The last class are being raised and bridged in portions from year to year. The Ganges is navigable throughout the District, and the exports of Kásganj and Dundwáraganj are shipped at the *gháts* of the same name. Some small traffic also passes by the Cawnpur branch of the Canal. In 1881 there were two printing-presses in the District, owned by natives at Etah, provided both with Nágari and Persian type.

Administration.—In 1860-61, the total revenue of the District from all sources amounted to £88,867, of which £73,743 was derived from

the land-tax; while the total expenditure amounted to £23,680, or hardly more than one-fourth of the revenue. In 1870–71, the total receipts had increased to £119,399, while the land-tax had remained almost stationary at £78,852. The increase was mainly due to canal collections, and to a large rise in the proceeds of local cesses, the income-tax, and the items of stamps and octroi. At the same time, the expenditure had risen to £37,272, or nearly one-third of the revenue. This increase was due to the need for more active administration, and was chiefly set down to such items as salaries of officials, education, post-office, canals, medical staff, and local cesses. In 1882–83, after the transfer of Jalesar *tahsíl* from Agra District to Etah in 1879, the gross District revenue amounted to £135,788, of which £119,521 was derived from the land. In the same year, the District was administered by 2 covenanted civilians, and contained 11 magisterial, 2 civil, and 9 revenue courts. The police consisted in 1883 of 350 regular and 262 municipal and town police, maintained at a cost of £5923, of which £4467 was paid from provincial funds, and £1456 from local sources. This force was supplemented by 1469 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*) and 66 road patrols, maintained at a cost of £5565. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2043 officers and men, or 1 policeman to every 0·81 square mile and every 370 inhabitants; and the total cost of their maintenance was £11,488, or about 3½d. per head of the population. The District has but one jail, the average daily number of prisoners in which was 117 in 1860, 210 in 1870, and 257 in 1882. Education is making a slow but steady advance in Etah; it is gaining in popular estimation, and some of the village schools are said to be models of excellence. In 1870–71, the District contained 166 Government-inspected schools, with a total of 3953 pupils. By March 1883, although the number of such inspected schools had fallen to 149, the number of pupils had increased to 4586. There are also a number of private schools uninspected by the educational officers; and the Census Report of 1881 returns 5499 boys and 111 girls as under instruction, besides 15,731 males and 230 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The District is divided into 4 *tahsíls* and 13 *parganás*, with an aggregate, in 1882, of 1856 estates. It contains 6 municipalities—Kásganj, Jalesar, Etah, Soron, Marehra, and Alíganj. In 1882–83 their joint income amounted to £5073, of which £4317 was derived from octroi; expenditure, £7263.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Etah is dry and healthy, but sand and dust storms are of almost daily occurrence in the hot season. During the cooler months the air is cold and bracing, and fires are often found necessary, especially in the winter rains. The total rainfall was 44·7 inches in 1867–68, 12·9 inches in 1868–69 (a year of scarcity),

27·3 inches in 1869–70, 34·1 inches in 1870–71, 36·1 inches in 1880–81. and 34·6 inches in 1881–82. The principal diseases are fevers and small-pox, but cholera sometimes visits Etah with severity. The reported death-rate was 22 per 1000 in 1872, 24·2 per 1000 in 1873, 22·1 per 1000 in 1874, and 29·5 per 1000 in 1882. In the latter year, the total number of deaths recorded was 21,554, of which as many as 19,204 were due to fever alone. There are 7 charitable dispensaries in the District, of which 2 are supported by endowments, which afforded assistance in 1883 to 35,902 out-door and 887 in-door patients. [For further information regarding Etah, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. iv., compiled by E. T. Atkinson, Esq., C.S. (Allahábád, 1876). Also *Report on the Settlement of Etah District* from 1863 to 1873, by S. O. B. Ridsdale, Esq., dated February 1873; the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the *Administration and Departmental Reports of the North-Western Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Etah.—South-western *tahsíl* of Etah District, North-Western Provinces, lying to the west of the Káli Nadi, and watered by three branches of the Lower Ganges Canal. Area, 491 square miles, of which 276 are cultivated. Population (1881) 226,892, namely, Hindus, 207,624; Muhammadans, 17,021; Jains, 2191; and 'others,' 56. Number of towns and villages, 470. Land revenue, £35,863; total Government revenue, £40,256; rental paid by cultivators, £57,231; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0¾d.

Etah.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 27° 33′ 50″ N., and long 78° 42′ 25″ E., on the Grand Trunk Road, 9 miles west of the Káli Nadi. Population (1881) 8054, namely, Hindus, 5211; Muhammadans, 2311; Jains, 492; Christians, 31; 'others,' 9; area of town site, 230 acres. Municipal income in 1882–83, £1047, of which £717 was derived from octroi, and the balance from miscellaneous fees and fines; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 9¼d. per head. Etah is rather an overgrown village than a town, deriving its whole importance from the presence of the civil station, removed hither from Patiáli in 1856, on account of the superior accessibility of the site. The principal market-place, Mayneganj, perpetuates the name of Mr. F. O. Mayne, C.B., a former Collector of the District. Westward lies the new town of Etah, containing the *tahsílí* school, while to the east Rájá Dilsugh Rái's temple towers over the other buildings to an extraordinary height. Large tank with handsome flight of steps, municipal hall, court-house, *tahsílí* office, dispensary. The site is low, and was formerly subject to floods; but a cutting to the Isan Nadi, effected by Mr. Mayne, has remedied this evil. In the town itself mud houses predominate, but most of the streets are metalled and drained. The residences of

the officials are few and scattered. Founded about 500 years since by Sangrám Singh, a Chauhán Thákur, whose mud fort still exists to the north of the town. His descendants occupied the surrounding territory, with the title of Rájá, till the Mutiny, when Rájá Damar Singh rebelled, and lost his property, together with the family honours. (*See* ETAH DISTRICT.) Chief trade—the scarlet *ál* dye, indigo-seed, cotton, and sugar. Market twice a week, on Monday and Friday.

Etaiyapuram.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5167, namely, Hindus, 4831; Muhammadans, 320; and Christians, 16.

Etáwah.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 21′ 8″ and 27° 0′ 25″ N. lat., and between 78° 47′ 20″ and 79° 47′ 20″ E. long. Etáwah is a District of the Agra Division. It is bounded on the north by Máinpuri and Farukhábád; on the west by the Jumna (Jamuná) river and Agra District, the Chambal, the Kuári Nadi, and the Native State of Gwalior; on the south by the Jumna; and on the east by Cawnpur. Area (1881) 1693 square miles; population, 722,371 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of ETAWAH, which is the only place of importance in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Etáwah is a purely artificial division for administrative purposes, stretching from the level plain of the Doáb, across the valley of the Jumna (Jamuná), to the gorges and ravines of the Chambal, which form the last outliers of the Vindhyan range. It exhibits an unusual variety of scenery. The north-eastern portion of the District, known as the *pachár*, which is separated from the remainder by the deep and fissured bed of the river Sengár, belongs in its physical features to the great upland plateau of the Doáb. This tract consists of a fertile loam, occasionally interrupted by barren *úsar* plains, and interspersed with saucer-like depressions of clay, whose centre is occupied by marshes or shallow lakes. It is well watered, both by the streams which take their rise from these swampy hollows, and by the great artificial canals which intersect and fertilize the Upper and Central Doáb. The Cawnpur branch canal, though it does not enter the District, runs close to its borders, and sends off distributaries which supply the extreme eastern angle; the Etáwah branch traverses the centre of the plateau; while the Bhognípur division of the Lower Ganges Canal, recently completed, passes between the two older works, and irrigates the intervening country. The whole *pachár* is rich and fertile, and it is clothed in the season with a green expanse of wheat and sugar-cane.

On the opposite bank of the Sengár lies another stretch of uplands, reaching almost to the bed of the Jumna. This tract,

locally known as the *garh*, is not unlike the *pachár* in its physical characteristics; but as water can only be obtained at a great depth in wells, cotton and inferior food-grains here replace the more valuable crops for which abundant irrigation is necessary. The Bhognipur canal, however, now passes through the very heart of this region, whose natural fertility was always considerable. The uplands descend into the Jumna valley through a wild terraced slope, broken by ravines, and covered with thorny brushwood. Upon its sides the villages are scanty, and lie concealed in the remotest nooks, while cultivation is difficult and unprofitable. Below, the river bank is sometimes fringed by a strip of rich alluvial deposit; but in other places the Jumna sweeps close round the bold bluffs which terminate the upland terraces. Its bank should form the natural boundary of the District, but a narrow strip of British territory lies along its opposite side, cut off from the Native State of Gwalior by the rapid torrents of the Chambal and the Kuári Nadí. This outlying region has been attached to Etáwah for administrative purposes. A little alluvial soil is found here and there on small plots of table-land in the trans-Jumna tract; but the greater part consists of a perfect labyrinth of gorges, amongst whose recesses may be found some of the wildest and most romantic scenery in Upper India. From the fortress-crowned cliff of Bhareh the eye wanders over a tangled mass of rock and valley, threaded by eddying rivers, overgrown with leafy jungle of acacia or oleander, and studded on every prominent bluff with the ruined stronghold of some ancient robber chief. The rugged and picturesque nature of this intricate range, known as the Pánchnada, or Country of Five Rivers, contrasts strangely with the cultivated and monotonous level of the Doáb to the east.

Etáwah is well watered, both naturally and artificially. The rivers of the District, proceeding from east to west, are the following:—(1) The PANDU rises in the extreme north-east corner of the District, in a great clay depression forming a large *jhíl* or marsh, and flows south-eastwards into Cawnpur District, ultimately joining the Ganges. This channel attains to no size in Etáwah, and is dry except in the rainy season. (2) The RIND or ARIND rises in Aligarh, touches on Etáwah near the village of Bháu Khera, runs eastwards along the northern boundary as far as the large village of Sabhad, when it turns to the south until it receives the united waters of two small tributaries, the Puraha and Ahneya, after which it flows south-east into Cawnpur District. The Rind is a perennial stream, but very shallow in the dry season. Its banks are mostly formed of alluvial soil. The tributary streams entirely dry up in the hot and cold seasons, being mere drainage channels for carrying off superfluous rain-water. (3) The SENGAR NADI, said to derive its name from the Sengar clan of Thákurs who live along its

banks, enters the District from the north-west, and flows in a south-easterly direction till it enters Cawnpur District. In the upper part of its course the stream is not of much importance, and the banks are generally cultivable; but about four miles above Etáwah town it is joined by a smaller stream, the Sarsa, which has previously flowed almost parallel to it. Thenceforward the Sengar runs in a deep bed, and the drainage from the surrounding country furrows its banks into deep ravines, altogether unfit for cultivation. They are, however, in places useful for pasturage, and produce *bábúl* and *riunj* trees, which are utilized for timber. (4) The JUMNA first touches on the north-western extremity of the District, and, flowing in a south-easterly direction, either bounds or traverses it for 115 miles. During the rainy season this river is navigable by boats of heavy burthen, though the windings of its channel render it by no means a direct line for traffic, and reefs of limestone and sand conglomerate jut out into the stream, and frequently render navigation both difficult and dangerous. The traffic is small, and hardly averages more than two boats up and down every day. The bank on one side is usually steep and precipitous, and on the other low and open to the overflow of the river in the rains. The river consequently spreads out widely in time of flood, and its surface velocity being small, it covers a large area in the rains with a rich alluvial deposit. Numerous ferries are maintained across the Jumna on the principal lines of traffic. (5) The CHAMBAL runs in a direction almost parallel with the Jumna. It forms the south-western frontier of Etáwah for about 25 miles, after which it continues its course through the District, and eventually joins the Jumna at Bhareh. In appearance and character, the Chambal in this part of its course closely resembles the Jumna, and has a channel of equal dimensions. It is exceedingly liable to sudden and heavy floods, when from the superior velocity of its current it discharges a greater volume of water than the Jumna. During heavy flood, communication is almost entirely cut off between the two banks. It is crossed by four principal ferries. The waters of the Chambal are as clear as crystal; and for some distance after its junction with the Jumna, its stream may be distinguished from that of the latter, which always carries either sand or mud in suspension. (6) The only other river of importance is the KUARI, which also marks a portion of the south-western boundary of the District, or traverses it for a distance of about 20 miles, when it unites with the Jumna and Chambal just below their junction. It is of the same class and character as those rivers, and subject to great and sudden floods in the rains, though very often dry in the hot season. The characteristic of the tract lying around the confluence of these rivers is the tangled mass of ravines which lie on either side of their channels. The whole of it is so deeply furrowed, that only a little

more than a quarter of the area is under cultivation. The canals by which the District is watered artificially have been alluded to in the previous paragraph.

Etáwah in general is well wooded, except in the *úsar* tracts. There are no jungles of any size, but the remains of a broad wooded belt, now containing little but *dhák* trees (Butea frondosa), runs in a south-easterly direction through the *pachár* tract. This jungle was once of considerable size, but all the cultivable parts of it are now being brought under the plough. The *úsar* plains in the Doáb and the ravines along the courses of the larger rivers occupy a considerable portion of the area of the District, and detract much from its general productiveness. The village communities who inhabit these tracts have done all that industry could do to utilize the existing patches of good land. Where the ravines are wide enough, they have been dammed across so as to stop the rush of water and preserve the good soil. The sides, too, have been carefully terraced. The portions which could not be so worked are of value for pasturage, or as producing firewood; and the people derive a livelihood from grazing cattle, and by the sale of *ghí*. The other uncultivated land is, as a rule, bad land, impregnated to a greater or less extent with the saline efflorescence *reh*. There are no mines or stone quarries in the District, but *kankar* or calcareous limestone is procurable in quantities from the ravines, which is either ground into lime, or used in its raw state as road-metalling. The principal wild beasts found in the District are the following:—Leopard, wolf, jackal, *nilgái*, antelope, wild hog, porcupine, badger, etc. Game birds are plentiful; and the rivers and tanks abound with fish, crocodiles, porpoises, and turtles, which sometimes grow to an enormous size. Venomous snakes, particularly the cobra and *karait*, are common.

History.—The physical features of Etáwah, which rendered it practically inaccessible to invaders in early times, marked it out for many ages as a secure retreat for the lawless and turbulent. Numerous mounds still show the ancient sites of prehistoric forts throughout the District, which long formed a main stronghold of the Meos, the Ishmaelites of the Upper Doáb. In their hands it doubtless remained until after the earliest Muhammadan invasions, as none of the tribes now inhabiting its borders has any traditions which stretch back beyond the 12th century of our era. Etáwah was probably traversed both by Mahmúd of Ghazní and by Kutab-ud-dín, on their successful expeditions against the native dynasties; but the memorials of these events are indistinct and uncertain on all local details. It is clear, however, that the Hindus of Etáwah succeeded on the whole in maintaining their independence against the Musalmán aggressors; for while the neighbouring Districts have a number of wealthy and influential Muham-

madan colonies, only a thin sprinkling of Shaikhs or Sayyids can be found amongst the territorial families of Etáwah. The Rájputs seem to have occupied the District in the course of their great eastward migration during the 12th century, and they were shortly followed by the Kanaujiya Bráhmans, whose descendants still form the most important element of the landowning community. Musalmán histories teem with notices of raids conducted with varying success by the Sayyid generals against the 'accursed infidels' of Etáwah. The Hindu chiefs were generally able to defend their country from the invaders, though they made peace after each raid by the payment of a precarious tribute. Early in the 16th century, Bábar conquered the District, together with the rest of the Doáb; and it remained in the power of the Mughals until the expulsion of Humáyún. His Afghán rival, Sher Sháh, saw that no order could be established without a thorough system of internal communications; and he opened up the country with roads and watch-houses, besides stationing 12,000 horsemen in Hathkáut, who dealt out such rude but prompt measures of justice as suited the circumstances of the place and the people. His reforms laid the foundation for the imperial organization of the Mughal dynasty. Akbar included Etáwah in his *sarkárs* of Agra, Kanauj, Kálpi, and Irich. But even that great administrator failed thoroughly to incorporate Etáwah with the dominions of the Delhi court. Neither as proselytizers nor as settlers have the Musalmáns impressed their mark so deeply here as in other Districts of the Doáb. During the decline of the Mughal power, Etáwah fell at first into the grasping hands of the Maráthás. The battle of Pánípat dispossessed them for a while, and the District became an appanage of the Ját garrison at Agra. In 1770, the Maráthás returned, and for three years they occupied the Doáb afresh. But when, in 1773, Najaf Khán drove the intruders southward, the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh crossed the Ganges, and laid claim to his share of the spoil. During the anarchic struggle which closed the century, Etáwah fell sometimes into the hands of the Maráthás, and sometimes into those of the Wazír; but at last the power of Oudh became firmly established, and was not questioned until the cession to the East India Company in 1801. Even after the British took possession, many of the District chiefs maintained a position of independence, or at least of insubordination; and it was some time before the revenue officers ventured to approach them with a demand for the Government dues. Gradually, however, the turbulent landowners were reduced to obedience, and industrial organization took the place of the old predatory *régime*. The murderous practice of *thaggi* (*thuggee*) had been common before the cession, but was firmly repressed by the new power. In spite of a devastating famine in 1837, which revolutionized the proprietary system by dis-

membering the great *táluks* or fiscal farms, the District steadily improved for many years, under the influence of settled government. The opening of the Ganges Canal, with its constantly increasing branches, diffused fertility through a wide portion of the area; and every class of the community was advancing in material prosperity, while the opening of schools gave an earnest of future advancement. The Mutiny of 1857 interrupted for some months this progress. News of the outbreak at Meerut (Merath) reached Etáwah two days after its occurrence. Within the week, a small body of mutineers passed through the District, and fired upon the authorities, upon which they were surrounded and cut down. Shortly after, another body occupied Jaswantnagar, and, although a gallant attack was made upon them by the local officials, they succeeded in holding the town. On the 22nd of May, it was thought desirable to withdraw from Etáwah station, but the troops mutinied on their march, and it was with difficulty that the officers and ladies reached Barhpura. There they were joined by the 1st Gwalior Regiment, which, however, itself proved insubordinate upon the 17th of June. It then became necessary to abandon the District and retire to Agra. The Jhánsi mutineers immediately occupied Etáwah, and soon passed on to Máinpurí. Meanwhile, many of the native officials proved themselves steady friends of order, and communicated whenever it was possible with the Magistrate in Agra. Bands of rebels from different quarters passed through between July and December, until on Christmas-day Brigadier Walpole's column re-entered the District. Etáwah station was recovered on the 6th January 1858; but the rebels still held the Shergarh *ghát*, on the main road to Bundelkhand, and the whole south-west of the District remained in their hands. During the early months of 1858, several endeavours were made to dislodge them step by step, but the local force was not sufficient to allow of any extensive operations. Indeed, it was only by very slow degrees that order was restored; and as late as the 7th of December a body of plunderers from Oudh, under Firoz Sháh, entered the District, burning and killing indiscriminately wherever they went. They were attacked and defeated at Harchandpur, and by the end of 1858 tranquillity was completely restored. Throughout the whole of this trying period, the loyalty exhibited by the people of Etáwah themselves was very noticeable. Though mutineers were constantly marching through the District, almost all the native officials remained faithful to the cause of order; and many continued to guard the treasure, and even to collect revenue, in the midst of anarchy and rebellion. The principal *zamíndárs* also were loyal almost to a man.

Population.—The Census of 1865 was the first enumeration of the people in which the area corresponded with that of the present time

sufficiently for purposes of comparison. It revealed a total population of 627,378, or 384 to the square mile. The Census of 1872 showed an increase to the number of 668,641 persons, or 395 to the square mile. The Census of 1881 returned the population at 722,371, or an increase of 53,730, or 8·03 per cent. over the enumeration in 1872. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area, 1693 square miles; number of villages and towns, 1478; houses, 105,548. Total population, 722,371, namely, males 395,224, and females 327,147; proportion of males in total population, 54·7 per cent. These figures show the usual preponderance of males, which must doubtless be to a great extent accounted for by the former prevalence of infanticide. There is reason to fear that this practice still lingers amongst the people. Average density of population, 426·5 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 0·87; persons per village, 489; houses per square mile, 62; inmates per house, 6·8. As regards religious distinctions, Etáwah is one of the Districts where the faith of Islám has never succeeded in obtaining any large body of followers. The Census of 1881 returned the number of Hindus at 679,247, or 94·0 per cent., and the Muhammadans at 41,437, or 5·7 per cent. of the total population. The remainder consists of 1526 Jains, 2 Sikhs, 158 Christians, and 1 Pársí. The proportions which the various castes and tribes bear to one another are the same as those prevalent throughout most of the Doáb. Of the 4 great Hindu divisions, the Bráhmans numbered 96,882 persons in 1881, minutely sub-divided into the usual stocks and clans. They hold nearly one-half of the villages in the richest portions of the District, and are the most important element of the population, both from their social position and their newly-acquired landed estates. The Rájputs are returned at 55,792, and hold about one-third of the villages. They form the old territorial aristocracy of Etáwah, who are being gradually ousted from their possessions by Bráhman usurers and Baniyá traders. The last-named class is returned at 31,076 persons. The 'other Hindu castes' of the Census include the great body of the population, amounting in the aggregate to 495,497 persons. The Chamárs (106,749) head the list; they are almost without exception agricultural labourers, whom the benevolent efforts of British rule have only now succeeded in raising from a condition of abject serfdom. Ahírs come next in numerical order, with 85,655, and this tribe has some landed property of small value. The Káyasths number only 8671 persons, but they possess a considerable number of villages, and are the wealthiest landholding community, in proportion to their numbers, in Etáwah. The other leading tribes are the Káchhis, 52,607; Lodhís, 38,060; Gadariás, 24,875; Korís, 21,900; Dhánuks, 15,767; Náis, 15,687; Telís, 14,137; Barháis, 11,195; Dhobís, 10,855;

Kumbhars, 10,612; and Lohárs, 7306. The Musalmáns are for the most part Shaikhs or Patháns, and are to be found chiefly in the larger towns; they belong almost without exception to the Sunní sect. The Christian population consists of 48 Europeans, 41 Eurasians, and 69 native converts.

Distribution into Town and Country.—The population is still essentially agricultural, and there is little movement towards urban life. In 1881, only 3 towns had a population exceeding 5000—namely, ETAWAH (34,721), PHAPHUND (7796), and AURAIYA (7299). Of the 1478 villages comprising the District in 1881, 475 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, 577 from two to five hundred, 287 from five hundred to a thousand, 110 from one to two thousand, 18 from two to three thousand, 8 from three to five thousand, 2 from five to ten thousand, and 1 from twenty to thirty thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into six main divisions as follows:—Class (1) Professional, including civil and military and the learned professions, 6271; (2) domestic servants, and inn and lodging-house keepers, 1490; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 6788; (4) agriculturists, including cultivators, gardeners, sheep and cattle tenders, etc., 188,672; (5) industrial, including manufacturers and artisans, 44,056; and (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 25,141 general labourers, and 122,806 male children and persons of no specified occupation), 147,947.

Agriculture.—A large portion of the area of Etáwah, especially in the trans-Jumna region, is covered with jungle or rendered barren by *úsar* plains. Of a total area of 1693 square miles, exactly one-half, or 848 square miles, were under cultivation in 1881, most of which has reached a high degree of tillage. At the date of the last settlement (1869–72), the area under each crop for the two harvests was found to be as follows:—*Rabí*, or spring crops—wheat, 54,776 acres; *bejar*, or wheat mixed with gram or barley, 137,458 acres; barley, 13,373 acres; gram, 21,830 acres; together with poppy, vegetables, and other crops, making up a grand total of 247,245 acres: *kharíf*, or rain crops—sugar-cane, 22,484 acres; cotton, 77,007 acres; *bájra*, 78,347 acres; *joár*, 102,845 acres; indigo, 7344 acres; together with rice, Indian corn, and other crops, making up a total of 300,371 acres; grand total, 547,616 acres. In 1882–83, cultivation had increased to the extent (including two-crop lands) of 278,910 acres for *rabí*, 366,791 acres for *kharíf*, and 1031 acres for extra crops; grand total, 646,732 acres. The average out-turn of wheat on good soil is 21 *maunds* or about 15 cwts. per acre, valued at £4, 18s., inclusive of the straw and the crops grown amongst it; the out-turn of cotton is 7 *maunds* or 5 cwts. per acre, valued at £3. The system of cultivation is the same

as that prevalent in the Doáb generally. Manure is applied every second year, and rotation of crops is practised to a slight extent. Irrigation is widely employed, and its advantages are thoroughly appreciated. Over 37 per cent. of the cultivated area has been already watered by artificial means; and the extensions of the canal system recently completed will doubtless effect a further improvement in this respect. As many as 135,801 acres were irrigated from canals alone in 1882–83, and the amount supplied from wells and ponds brings up the total to 201,919 acres. As elsewhere, the canals have been instrumental, not merely in extending the area of cultivation, but also in improving the character of the crops, by substituting indigo, sugar-cane, opium, and superior cereals for the commoner sorts of grain. The condition of the peasantry is comfortable; the Bráhman and Rájput proprietors are in easy circumstances. The people are better clothed and better fed than formerly, and their standard of living has been steadily rising of late years. The proprietors till 11 per cent. of the total area as homestead; tenants with rights of occupancy hold 57 per cent.; tenants-at-will cultivate only 23 per cent.; and the remainder is revenue-free. Rents have risen of late years, with the rise of prices and increase of population, but the enhancements have been slow and slight, owing to the strong local feeling in favour of the customary rates. It is difficult to give any statistics, as the amount varies somewhat capriciously, not only with the nature of the soil, but also with the caste of the cultivator and the mode of tenure. Good irrigated land brings in as much as £1, 1s. an acre, common dry lands may fetch as little as 3s. 6d. an acre. The male agriculturists in 1881 numbered 186,499, cultivating an average of 3·03 acres each. The total population, however, dependent on the soil is returned at 484,420, or 67·06 per cent. of the entire District population. Of the total area of the District, 16·4 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 1677 square miles assessed for Government demand, of which 877 square miles are cultivated. Total land revenue in 1881, including cesses and local rates levied on the land, £153,664, or an average of 5s. $5\frac{1}{8}$d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £229,678, or an average of 8s. $0\frac{7}{8}$d. per cultivated acre. Wages have been on the increase for some years. Cabinetmakers, masons, and smiths receive $7\frac{1}{2}$d. per diem; water-carriers, $4\frac{1}{2}$d. per diem; labourers, 3d.; women and boys, $2\frac{3}{4}$d. per diem. Prices in the cis-Jumna tract have risen more than 50 per cent. within the last thirty years. The average prices of food-grains for the decade ending in 1870 were as follows:—Wheat, 4s. 8d. per cwt.; gram, 5s. 4d. per cwt.; *joár*, 3s. $11\frac{3}{4}$d. per cwt. In 1882–83, the average rates for food-grains per cwt. were—Wheat, 5s. 11d.; *joár* and *bájra*, 4s. 6d.; gram, 4s.; common rice, 7s. 9d.; and barley, 4s. 9d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Etáwah has suffered much in previous years from drought, which produced famines in 1803, 1813, 1819, and 1837. In 1860–61 the District escaped with comparatively little distress, though even here measures of relief were necessary, and the number of persons relieved amounted in all to 54,101. In 1868–69, again, Etáwah was not visited with nearly so much severity as many other portions of the Doáb. Though one-half of the *kharíf* harvest was destroyed, rain fell in time to bring the *rabí* to fully two-thirds of its average amount. The highest price reached by wheat during the period of scarcity was about 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. per cwt. The famine of 1878–79 also affected the District, destroying the greater part of the *kharíf* crops; the little that was raised was due entirely to canal cultivation. The spread of irrigation has done much to remove the extreme danger of famine; and the construction of the new Lower Ganges Canal will probably render the District safe in future years from actual want of food, so far as human calculation can foresee.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The exports of Etáwah consist almost entirely of agricultural produce, amongst which the chief items are cotton, gram, indigo, and oil-seeds. Some of the cotton goes as far as Bombay, and a little is even sent beyond the bounds of India itself. Cloth goods, metals, drugs, and spices form the staple imports. They are distributed to consumers by the medium of religious fairs, one of which, at Doba, sometimes attracts as many as 30,000 visitors. There is also a good deal of through traffic to and from Gwalior, grain passing outward and *ghí* inward. The communications have improved greatly of late years. The East Indian Railway runs through the centre of the District, with stations at Jaswantnagar, Etáwah, Bharthna, Achalda, and Phaphúnd. The Jumna is also largely used as a waterway, and carries a great part of the heavy traffic. The District contains 63 miles of 'first-class' roads, bridged and metalled throughout; the 'second' and 'third' class roads have a total length of 596 miles.

Administration.—In 1860, the total revenue of Etáwah amounted to £136,582, of which £121,375, or eight-ninths of the whole, was due to the land-tax. At the same date, the total expenditure amounted to £90,103, or two-thirds of the revenue. In 1882–83, the total revenue of the District amounted to £148,191, of which £133,128 was contributed by the land revenue. In 1882, the administrative staff consisted of 2 covenanted civilians, with 7 subordinate officers; and the District contained 14 magisterial and 13 civil and revenue courts. The police in the same year numbered 516 men of all ranks, namely, District police 392, and municipal and town police 124, maintained at a cost of £5620, of which £4862 was derived from provincial funds, and the balance from local funds. This force was supplemented by 1388 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*) and 66 road patrols, upon whose main-

tenance a further sum of £5274 was expended. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property, consisted of 1970 men of all ranks, being 1 man to every 0·81 square mile and every 366 inhabitants; and the total expense of the establishment was £10,894, or about 3½d. per head of the population. A single jail suffices for the criminal population; the average daily number of prisoners in 1870 was 226, and in 1882, 243·72, of whom 223 were labouring convicts. In 1881, there were 132 Government inspected schools, with 3883 pupils. There are also a number of private schools uninspected by the Government educational officers; and the Census Report of 1881 returned 4807 boys and 91 girls as under instruction, besides 15,966 males and 251 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The District possesses a superior educational establishment in Hume's High School, founded by the Collector in 1861. The District is sub-divided into 5 *tahsíls*, with an aggregate of 1813 estates owned by 15,523 registered proprietors or coparceners. The only municipality in 1882–83 was Etáwah town.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Etáwah was formerly reported as hot and sultry to an oppressive degree, but the planting of trees and the spread of canal irrigation have modified its character of late years. It is now comparatively moist and equable, and the District is among the healthiest in the plains of India. The rainfall was 49·6 inches in 1867–68, 14·8 inches in 1868–69 (the year of scarcity), 34·2 inches in 1869–70, and 46·6 inches in 1870–71. In 1881, the rainfall was 30·40 inches, the average for the twenty years previous being 27·17 inches. The chief endemic disease is fever of a malarious type, which seems occasionally to assume an epidemic typhoidal form. The District is also visited from time to time by small-pox and cholera. In 1874, the total number of deaths recorded was 19,276 (28·83 per 1000 of the population); and of these no fewer than 12,684 were due to fever, while 4841 were set down to small-pox. In 1880–81, the registered deaths numbered 22,993, or 37·3 per 1000 of the population, of which no fewer than 20,040 were ascribed to fever alone. In 1882, the registered death-rate fell to 28·33 per thousand, as against an average of 30·88 per thousand in the previous five years. The cattle of Etáwah are subject to frequent attacks both of rinderpest and of foot-and-mouth disease. [For a further description of Etáwah, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, compiled by E. T. Atkinson, Esq., vol. iv. pp. 219–472 (Allahábád, 1876); the *Report on the Settlement of Etáwah District*, from 1868–69 to 1873, by C. H. J. Crossthwaite, Esq. Also the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* in 1881; together with the *Administration and Departmental Reports of the North-Western Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Etáwah.—North-western *tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western

Provinces, including a considerable tract in the Doáb, watered by a branch of the Ganges Canal, and extending into the ravine-covered country on the banks of the Jumna (Jamuná), together with an isolated wedge of land between that river and the Chambal, consisting for the most part of wild jungle-clad gorges. Area, 425 square miles, of which 222 are cultivated. Population (1881) 193,211, namely, males 105,319, and females 87,892. Hindus numbered 175,946; Muhammadans, 15,893; Jains, 1249; 'others,' 123. Land revenue, £27,813; total Government revenue, £29,473; rental paid by cultivators, £49,032. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 7 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 80 officers and men, and a village watch of 358 men.

Etáwah.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in latitude 26° 45′ 31″ N., and longitude 79° 3′ 18″ E., among the ravines on the left bank of the Jumna, at a point where the river bends sharply backwards upon its own course. Population (1881) 34,721, namely, 18,311 males and 16,410 females. Hindus numbered 23,552; Muhammadans, 10,289; Jains, 765; Christians, 112; and 'others,' 3; area of town site, 500 acres. Municipal income in 1882-83, £2365, of which £1940, or 1s. 2d. per head, was derived from taxation; expenditure, £2298. The suburbs extend nearly down to the water's edge, but the main quarter is separated from the Jumna river by a strip of broken country about half a mile in length, while to the north the houses stretch to within a quarter of a mile of the Etáwah station of the East Indian Railway. The town proper is situated among the ravines, which, owing to their wild and irregular forms, present a picturesque and pleasing appearance, especially where the broader ravines are clothed with trees. These trees are so abundant in places, that from many points of view the city looks like one large garden, amidst which buildings appear enshrouded in green. A somewhat broader fissure than the others separates the old from the new town, between which, owing to the uneven nature of the ground, communication was at one time difficult; but now fine, broad, metalled roadways taken over the ravines by embankments and bridges, render communication at all times easy and practicable. The roads from Agra and Máinpurí unite outside the city to the north-west, and are continued through the new quarter, forming the principal *bázár*-way, and lined on each side by substantially-built and fine-looking shops. The main road between Gwalior and Farukhábád intersects the Agra and Máinpurí road at right angles about the centre of the *bázár*. Hume-ganj, a handsome square, called after a late Collector, A. O. Hume, C.B., contains the public buildings, and forms the centre of the city. It includes a market-place, *tahsíli*, and Magistrate's courts, mission-house, police station, and dispensary. Hume's

High School is a handsome building, erected chiefly by private subscription. The north and south sides of the square form the principal grain and cotton markets. A *sarái*, with a fine well and arched gateway, adjoins the square. The civil station lies about half a mile to the north of the town. The roads are numerous and well metalled, and the station is well stocked with plantations of shady trees. The railway buildings occupy the east end of the station, and next to them is the jail. The offices of the Collector and Magistrate lie about a quarter of a mile to the west of the jail; and beyond them, to the north-west, are the church, public garden, racket court, and billiard room; also telegraph and post office. Etáwah was formerly a military station; but the garrison, which had been reduced to the wing of a native regiment, was entirely withdrawn in 1861, and the buildings of the old cantonments have disappeared. Etáwah carries on a considerable trade in *ghí* (clarified butter), gram, cotton, and oil-seeds, the traders principally belonging to the Kurmí caste. No important manufacture of any kind is carried on. A kind of coloured native cloth named *taptí* is woven, and one quarter of the city, *mahallá* Dabgarán, derives its name from the Dabgárs, or makers of skins for carrying oil and *ghí;* but owing to the greater employment of tins and casks for this purpose, the industry is declining. Another *mahallá*, Shákligarán, is so called from its being the residence of the Shákligars, or comb-makers and workers in horn. Etáwah is also noted for the manufacture of a sweetmeat called *pethá*, which is much esteemed by natives and is largely exported. The Jamá Masjid, or 'great mosque,' originally a Hindu or Buddhist temple, stands on the right-hand side of the Gwalior road, and is interesting from its numerous fragments of early workmanship. The Asthala, situated in a grove to the west of the city, ranks first among the Hindu places of worship; it was built about ninety years ago by one Gopál Dás, a Bráhman, in honour of Nara Singha, an incarnation of Vishnu. Another Hindu temple, dedicated to Mahadeo Tiksí, stands among the ravines between the city and the Jumna. The bathing *ghâts* along the river's edge are lined by many handsome shrines; and a modern Jain building, with a lofty white spire, forms a striking object. The fort, the stronghold of a Thákur in olden times, appears to have been founded on a still earlier mound, and makes a handsome ruin, with massive bastions and an underground passage, used to the present day as a pathway to the summit. The city dates back to a period before the Musalmán conquest, both Mahmúd of Ghazní and Shaháb-ud-dín Ghorí having plundered it during their expeditions. The fort was built by the Chauháns on their immigration into this wild tract, and occupied by a Musalmán governor after their expulsion. Bábar and the Muhammadan historians frequently mention it as a place of great strength. In the 17th century, Etáwah became a famous

banking and commercial town, but suffered greatly, on the decline of the Mughal Empire, from Rohillá and Maráthá raids. For its later history and the events of the Mutiny, see ETAWAH DISTRICT.

Ettiapuram.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in Otapidaram *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1878) 126,660, dwelling in 349 villages. Revenue of the *zamíndár*, £28,781; *peshkash* or tribute to Government, £8882. Chief manufacture, toddy, made from the palmyra trees, of which there are 70,000 on the estate, each worth annually 2½d. The tenantry are well-to-do.

Everest, Mount.—The loftiest known peak in the world, situated in the Nepál ranges of the HIMALAYAS, beyond Bengal. Latitude 27° 59′ 12″ N., longitude 86° 58′ 6″ E. Altitude above the sea, 29,002 feet. Named in honour of Sir G. Everest, Surveyor-General of India, by his successor, Sir Andrew Waugh, at the time when the height was first accurately calculated.

F.

Faizábád (*Fyzábád*).—A Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, lying between 26° 9′ and 28° 24′ N. lat., and between 81° 5′ and 83° 9′ E. long. The Division comprises the three Districts of FAIZABAD, GONDA, and BAHRAICH, all of which see separately. It is bounded on the north by the Nepál *tarái*; on the east by Gorakhpur; on the south by Azamgarh and Sultánpur; and on the west by Bara Banki, Sítápur, and Kheri. Area (1881) 7305 square miles; number of towns or villages, 7362; number of houses, 586,846. Total population, 3,230,393, namely, 1,656,132 males and 1,574,261 females. Hindus numbered 2,791,892, or 86·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 436,337, or 13·5 per cent.; Sikhs, 591; Jains, 41; Buddhist, 1; Pársís, 2; Jews, 17; and Christians, 1512. Average density of population, 442 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·00; persons per village, 439; houses per square mile, 80; persons per house, 5·5. Total cultivated area, 2,546,240 acres; number of adult male agriculturists, 859,535, or 2·94 acres of cultivated land for each male agriculturist; total agricultural population, including agricultural labourers, 2,566,012, or 79·43 per cent. of the total population. Of the total area of 7305 square miles, 6539 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 3864 square miles are under cultivation; unassessed area, 765 square miles, of which 85 square miles are cultivated. Total land revenue, including cesses, £397,341, or an average of 3s. 2½d. per cultivated acre. Average rental paid by the cultivators, 6s. 2¼d. per acre.

Faizábád (*Fyzábád*).—District of Oudh, in the Division of the same name, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, lying between 26° 9′ and 26° 50′ N. lat., and between 81° 43′ and 83° 9′ E. long. In shape, the District is an irregular parallelogram running from west to east, with a slight tendency southwards; length, varying from 85 miles in the north to 64 in the south; average width, from 20 to 25 miles. Bounded on the north by Gonda and Basti Districts, the Gogra river forming the boundary-line; on the east by Gorakhpur; on the south by Azamgarh and Sultánpur; and on the west by Bara Banki. Area, 1689 square miles. Population (1881) 1,081,419. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of FAIZABAD.

Physical Aspects.—The physical features of the country are similar to those of the neighbouring Districts of Oudh, and require but brief notice. Faizábád consists of a densely-populous, well-cultivated plain of great fertility, having an average elevation of 350 feet above sea-level, without hills or valleys, and devoid of forests, but well wooded with numerous mango and bamboo groves, and scattered *pípal* and *simul* trees. The drainage is towards the south-east. The principal river, affording the chief means of communication between Faizábád and the Gangetic valley, is the Gogra (Ghágra), which flows along its whole northern frontier for a distance of 95 miles, being navigable throughout by the largest-sized cargo-boats and river steamers. The banks of the river are about 25 feet above cold weather water-level. They are never flooded, but a breadth of low-lying land between the banks and the stream is submerged every rainy season. The other rivers are—the Tons, formed by the confluence of the Bisoi and the Madha rivers; and the Majhoi, which marks the boundary between Faizábád and Sultánpur. The Tons is navigable during the rains as far as Akbarpur by boats of about 5 tons burthen. Its banks are steep; in many places covered with *úsar*, in others fringed with jungle. Many other small streams flow through the District. Water is everywhere abundant, and lies close to the surface. Although there are no large *jhíls* or lakes, there are innumerable artificially-constructed tanks and natural water-holes and small swamps, which afford ample means for easy irrigation. Owing perhaps to the greater extent of cultivation, Faizábád is worse stocked with game than any other District of Oudh. Wild hog are tolerably numerous near the Gogra, and antelope are occasionally met with in the west of the District; bears and deer are unknown; ducks and geese are comparatively scarce. Fisheries unimportant.

History.—The early history of Faizábád is that of AJODHYA (*q.v.*), of which kingdom it formed a part. (See also SAHET MAHET.) Passing from the time of Rámchandra—the hero of the Sanskrit

epic, the *Rámáyana*—through the subsequent period of Buddhist supremacy; its decline; the revival of Bráhmanism under King Vikramáditya of Ujjain; the struggles between Buddhism and Bráhmanism; and the subsequent re-establishment of the Bráhmanical faith about the 8th century A.D.—we come to the first event in what may be called the modern history of the country, namely the Muhammadan invasion. In 1030, Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, the son of Sálár Sáhu, one of the generals of Sultán Mahmúd, invaded Oudh, and passed through Faizábád. It is not certain whether any great battle was fought here, but a portion of the high road is still pointed out, along which the country people will not pass after dark. They say that at night the road is thronged with headless horsemen of Sayyid Sálár's army. Sayyid Sálár, after a series of victories, was slain, and his troops completely defeated, at BAHRAICH by the confederate Rájput princes. These afterwards turned against each other, and the Province seems to have been split up into a number of petty fiefs. After the conquest of Kanauj, the Musalmáns again overran Oudh, and succeeded in consolidating their rule. Ajodhya long remained the capital of the Province; but by the early part of the 18th century it had given way to Faizábád, a few miles to the west. Shujá-ud-dín, however, was the first of the Oudh Viceroys who made Faizábád his permanent residence in 1756. After his death in 1780, the capital was removed to Lucknow. The only important event in the history of the District since the annexation of the Province was the Mutiny of 1857. In the early part of that year, the troops in cantonments consisted of the 22nd Bengal Native Infantry, the 6th Irregular Oudh Cavalry, a company of the 7th Bengal Artillery, and a horse battery of light field-guns. The troops revolted on the night of the 8th June, but the outbreak was not accompanied with the scenes of massacre which occurred at other military stations. The European officers, with their wives and families, were allowed to leave unmolested; and although some of them were attacked in their flight by mutineers of other regiments, they nearly all succeeded, after more or less hardship, in reaching places of safety. A Muhammadan landholder, Mír Muhammad Husain Khán, sheltered one party in his small fort for several days, until the road was open and they could reach Gorakhpur in safety.

Population.—The population of Faizábád, according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for later transfers, was 1,024,652 upon the area constituting the present District. In 1881, the Census returned a population of 1,081,419, an increase of 56,767, or 5·25 per cent., in twelve years. The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area, 1689 square miles; number of towns and villages, 2676; houses, 206,258. Total population, 1,081,419, namely, males 546,174, and females 535,245; proportion

of males in total population, 50·5 per cent. Average density of population, 640 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 1·58; persons per village, 405; houses per square mile, 122; persons per house, 5·2. Classified according to religion, the Census returned the population as follows:—Hindus, 955,458, or 88·4 per cent.; and Muhammadans, 124,539, or 11·5 per cent. of the population. Christians numbered 1294; Sikhs, 104; Jains, 4; Jews, 17; Buddhist, 1; and Pársís, 2. The Hindu castes of Faizábád are the same as those found in the rest of Oudh. The Bráhmans stand first, with 153,982, or 14·2 per cent. of the total population; the despised Chamárs, the lowest caste in social rank, come next with 136,310, or 12·6 per cent.; followed by the Ahírs, with 121,972, or 11·3 per cent. The Rájputs or Kshatriyás, who rank socially next to the Bráhmans, form the wealthy landed class, and own two-thirds of the soil, although numbering only 68,109, or 6·3 per cent. of the population. The remaining Hindu castes, numbering upwards of 5000 souls, are as follow: Kurmí, 64,978; Kachhí, 38,255; Mallah, 34,493; Pásí, 32,305; Baniyá, 31,470; Kahár, 29,441; Bhar, 20,371; Kumbhar, 18,055; Korí, 17,703; Dhobí, 14,528; Nai, 14,419; Telí, 14,408; Káyasth, 14,317; Gadária, 13,799; Barhái, 12,684; Lohár, 12,211; Kalwár, 11,781; Tambulí, 10,686; Loniá, 9162; and Bhurjí, 8526. Although of the 124,539 Muhammadans the great majority (113,030, or 91 per cent.) belong to the Sunní sect, yet Faizábád has, with the exception of Lucknow, a larger number and proportion of followers of the Shiah sect (11,460, or 9 per cent. of the Muhammadan population) than any other District in Oudh. The Shiahs form the most influential class, and are principally met with in Faizábád city, which was for long the residence of a Shiah court. Unspecified Muhammadans, 49. Of the 1294 Christians, 1117 were British born or Europeans by race, 119 were Eurasians, and 58 native converts.

Division into Town and Country.—The population is almost entirely rural, the urban residents in the five towns numbering only 83,614 souls, or less than 8 per cent. of the population. These towns are FAIZABAD city and cantonment (population, 43,927); TANDA, 16,594; AJODHYA, 11,643; JALALPUR, 6240; and RONAHI (or Naurahi), 5210. Faizábád and Ajodhyá, which are adjacent towns, have been constituted into a single municipality. The only other municipality is Tánda. Of the 2676 villages which the District contained in 1881, 1110 had fewer than two hundred inhabitants; 968 from two to five hundred; 428 from five hundred to a thousand; 136 from one to two thousand; 29 from two to five thousand; and 5 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six main divisions or groups: Class (1) Professional,

including civil and military and the learned professions, 6473; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 2132; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 6957; (4) agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, and keepers of animals, 274,589; (5) industrial, including manufacturers and artisans, 39,234; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 12,249 general labourers and 204,540 male children and persons of no specified occupation), 216,789.

Agriculture. — The principal agricultural staples are wheat and rice, which together make up 41 per cent. of the total area under cultivation. This was returned in 1883 at 1240 square miles, or 793,891 acres, including land yielding two crops in the year. The total area actually cultivated was 949 square miles, or 607,208 acres. The acreage under each crop in 1883 (including land bearing two crops in the year) is returned as follows:—Wheat, 109,342; rice, 215,822; *joár*, *urd*, gram, peas, barley, and *arhar*, 410,670; sugar-cane, 30,231; oil-seeds, 12,746; opium, 8597; indigo, 3457; and miscellaneous crops, 1157 acres. The average produce per acre of the different crops is thus returned:—Rice, 737 lbs.; wheat, 816 lbs.; inferior food-grains, 1029 lbs.; oil-seeds, 277; sugar (unrefined), 2016 lbs. Irrigation is largely practised, but there are no Government canals or irrigation works in the District. The area irrigated by private individuals in 1883 amounted to 352,730 acres. The water is principally derived from *jhíls* and tanks, but masonry wells are more commonly used for this purpose in Faizábád than in any other District in Oudh. Water is met with at various depths, varying from 12 feet along the banks of the Gogra to 37 feet in parts beyond the old bed of the river. A masonry well, 25 feet deep, and sufficiently large for two pulleys to be worked at once, costs about £25 if mortared, or £17, 10s. if unmortared. Such a well is worked by five men, who can irrigate one local *bíghá* (about 1150 square yards) in a day. One watering costs from 3s. 9d. to 5s. an acre, according to the current rate of wages. In the *tarái*, where water is found within 12 feet of the surface, the well is a mere hole, and 3 men are able to irrigate a *bíghá* at a cost of from 2s. 4½d. to 3s. 1½d. for each watering. As a rule, sugar-cane is watered 10 times, opium and tobacco each 7, barley, peas, and *masúri*, once. Wheat requires a double well for every 12 acres, opium and tobacco for every 5, and barley, peas, etc., for every 15. Rents are high, and are still rising. The rate per acre in 1883 for land growing the different crops is thus returned:—Opium and tobacco, 19s. 3d.; sugar-cane, 18s. 3d.; wheat, 14s. 9d.; rice, 11s. 9d.; inferior food-grains, 9s. 6d.; oil-seeds, 5s. 6d.; indigo, 13s. Classified according to the different qualities of land, rents may be set down as follows:—Manured crops near the village, 25s. per acre; irrigated loam, 16s.; unirrigated loam,

12s.; sandy unirrigated loam, 7s. The total male adult agricultural population of the District, including agricultural labourers, is returned by the Census at 245,054, cultivating 608,192 acres, or an average of 2·47 acres each. The total agricultural population, however, dependent on the soil numbers 834,294, or 77·15 per cent. of the District population. Of the total area of 1689 square miles, 1663 are assessed for Government revenue, of which 933 square miles are cultivated and 272 cultivable. Total Government assessment, including rates and cesses, £121,297, or an average of 4s. 0½d. per cultivated acre. Rent paid by cultivators, including cesses, £199,740, or an average of 6s. 6¾d. per cultivated acre. The cultivator's profits are probably the same in Faizábád as in other parts of Oudh—just enough to pay for his labour and for the keeping up of his stock. Of late years, however, owing to the rise of rent, bad harvests, and cattle murrain, they have not reached this standard. The difficulties of the cultivating class are not due to the Government revenue being too heavy, but to pressure put upon them by the petty proprietors and middle-men, who have to raise the rents in order to enable them to live according to their old standard of comfort. The land is divided among a few large and an immense number of small proprietors. The large *tálukdárí* estates are 32 in number, containing an area of 998,000 acres, or an average of 49 square miles each. Included within these fiefs are many sub-tenures, which have been granted by the *tálukdárs* or decreed by the courts. These consist of 703 villages, and cover an area of 250,000 acres, or a little over one-fourth of the parent estates. The number of these sub-proprietors is 22,846, the average area of each estate being 14 acres. The small independent estates number about 17,000; average area, 29 acres. Tenants possessing occupancy rights are said to number about 2½ per cent. of the whole. The agricultural stock in the District in 1883 was returned as follows: Cows and bullocks, 372,677; horses and ponies, 2733; donkeys, 2328; sheep and goats, 51,496; pigs, 56,953; carts, 955; ploughs, 82,884. Wages are paid both in money and in grain. Throughout the District the ordinary rate of money wages for unskilled labour is 3d., and for skilled labour 6d. a day, but rates are higher in the neighbourhood of Faizábád town. Prices of food-grains have considerably advanced of late years. Between the ten years 1861–1870, prices for common unhusked rice rose from 3s. to 4s. 2d. a cwt., common husked rice from 7s. to 8s. 2d., wheat from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 11d., *joár* from 3s. 6d. to 4s. 7d., *bájra* from 4s. 2d. to 7s. 10d., gram from 4s. 8d. to 6s. 3d., *arhar* from 4s. 7d. to 5s. 9d., *urd* from 5s. 6d. to 7s. 3d., *múg* from 7s. 2d. to 8s. 4d., *masúri* from 4s. 2d. to 5s. 7d. a cwt. The average prices in 1883 were (according to quality), for wheat from 5s. 7d. to 5s. 9½d. a cwt., rice from 8s. 4¾d. to 10s. 6d. per cwt., and gram 4s. 2d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The three last famines which afflicted the District occurred in 1869, 1874, and 1877-78, being caused by the failure of the rains in the preceding years. Famines in Faizábád are of two kinds—one of food itself, and the other of the means to purchase food, which may be termed a labour famine. The first outward sign of distress is shown when the small farmers, who pay their labourers grain wages, turn them off to shift for themselves. The result is that these men emigrate from the District as scarcity approaches, long before there is absolute famine; the demand for food is diminished, and the crisis perhaps tided over till the next harvest. Another cause which mitigates the effect of a bad crop in Faizábád, is the great variety of the staples sown. Rice, *joár*, barley, gram, *urd*, and peas are all grown in fair proportion; whereas in the neighbouring Districts of Gonda and Bahráich, if the rice fails, there is nothing to fall back upon. In Faizábád, the harvests follow within every two months of each other, except from June to September.

Communications, Trade, Commerce, etc.—Besides the water highway along the Gogra, means of communication are afforded by two good metalled roads to Sultánpur, Partábgarh, and Allahábád on the south, and to Daryábád, Nawábganj, and Lucknow on the west, aggregating 60 miles in Faizábád District. Good unmetalled roads cross the country in every direction, aggregating 534 miles. There are numerous ferries on the Gogra, and a bridge of boats is maintained at Faizábád town during the dry season. A branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway also intersects the District for a length of 66 miles, with stations at Malipur, Akbarpur, Gosáinganj, Nára, Darshannagar, Ajodhyá, Faizábád, and Sohwál. The navigable water communication is 95 miles in length. The trade of Faizábád District cannot be estimated with any approach to accuracy. The registered river-borne imports and exports for 1872 and 1873 were as follows:—The value of the imports, consisting principally of sugar, tobacco, spices, salt, cattle, and English piece-goods, was returned at £159,350 in 1872, and £158,272 in 1873; while that of the exports (principally wheat and other food-grains, hides, timber, country cloth, etc.) was returned at £333,336 in 1872, and £306,325 in 1873. These figures, however, do not show the actual exports and imports of Faizábád, but merely indicate the course of river trade at marts within the District boundary. The internal trade by road or river with other parts of Oudh is not given. For instance, Faizábád exports a large quantity of opium by rail to Lucknow; but although much of it is produced in Faizábád itself, none of it, or of any other railway traffic, is credited to the District in the trade returns. These, again, exhibit Faizábád as a large importer of sugar; it really produces more than is required for its own consumption. The fact is that the sugar of Basti and Azam-

garh passes through Faizábád to Lucknow, whence it is distributed to Cawnpur and Bareli. Country cloth is largely exported from Tánda; timber is exported really from Kheri and Bahráich, but is credited to Faizábád, as the logs are counted in this District. The grain exported is mainly rice, wheat, and maize, but much of it comes from neighbouring Districts, and is embarked in Faizábád, which acts as an emporium for Eastern Oudh.

Administration.—The judicial staff consists of the Divisional Commissioner, Civil Judge, Deputy Commissioner, with 2 European and 3 native assistants, a cantonment magistrate, and 4 revenue collectors (*tahsíldárs*), a subordinate judge, and 3 *munsifs*. There are also 11 magistrates, all of whom have civil and revenue powers; besides 2 honorary magistrates. The total imperial revenue of the District in 1875–76 amounted to £151,856, of which £133,242 was derived from the land. The total expense of civil administration, as represented by the cost of the District officials and police, amounted in the same year to £18,097. In 1882–83, the imperial revenue had slightly decreased to £141,433, owing to a decrease in the land revenue, which had been lowered to £110,027; cost of officials and police, £18,107. The regular police force in 1882–83 consisted of 528 officers and men, maintained at a cost to the State of £5964; the rural police consisted of 2490 village watchmen, and 7 men on road patrol, maintained at a cost of £6135; and there was also a municipal force of 272 men, costing £1756 from municipal funds. During 1881, 1089 cases were brought by the police before the magistrates, and 848 convictions obtained. Crime reaches its maximum in July, the month when grain is scarcest. The District jail contained a daily average of 504·17 prisoners in 1882, of whom 35·17 were females. The Government or aided educational institutions consisted in 1872–73 of 162 schools, attended by 4633 pupils; and in 1880–81 of 184 schools, with 5294 pupils. In 1882–83, the number of Government inspected schools had fallen to 89, and the pupils to 3891. There are also a number of private schools not under inspection; the Census Report in 1881 returned 4657 boys and 60 girls as under instruction in that year, besides 21,298 males and 380 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall of Faizábád is more regular than in Western Oudh, and during the fifteen years ending 1881 has averaged 42·90 inches. The rainfall in the latter year was 32·80 inches, or 10·10 inches below the average. Mean temperature (1875), May 87·9° F., July 85·6°, December 65·6°. The principal diseases of the District are fevers. Small-pox is also prevalent, and cholera occasionally makes its appearance in an epidemic form. The registered deaths in 1882 numbered 33,552, or at the rate of 33·08 per thousand of the

population, against a mean of 25·28 per thousand for the five previous years. The deaths from fever alone amounted in 1882 to 26,701, and from cholera to 2841. Four charitable dispensaries in the District, at Faizábád town, Tánda, Akbarpur, and Bíkapur, afforded medical relief in 1883 to 923 in-door and 20,227 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Faizábád, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Oudh*, vol. i. pp. 402–488 (Lucknow, Oudh Government Press, 1877). Also *Report on the Settlement of the Land Revenues of the Faizábád District*, by A. F. Millet, Esq., C.S. (Allahábád Government Press, 1880); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; Administration and Departmental Reports for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh*, from 1880 to 1883.]

Faizábád (*Fyzábád*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Faizábád District, Oudh, lying between 26° 32′ 30″ and 26° 50′ N. lat., and between 81° 51′ and 82° 31′ 15″ E. long.; bounded on the north by Begamganj *tahsíl* of Gonda, on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the south by Bíkapur *tahsíl*, and on the west by Rám Sanehí *tahsíl* of Bara Banki. Area, 342 square miles, of which 201 are cultivated. Population (1881) 290,942, namely, males 148,170, and females 142,772. Hindus numbered 249,659; Muhammadans, 39,866; Jains, 4; and 'others,' 1413. The *tahsíl* consists of the 3 *parganás* of Haweli Oudh, Mangalsi, and Amsír.

Faizábád (*Fyzábád*).—Chief town, municipality, and cantonment, Faizábád District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 46′ 45″ N., and long. 82° 11′ 40″ E., on the left bank of the river Gogra, 78 miles east of Lucknow. Adjoining it on the west is the modern Ajodhya, both towns being on the site of the ancient city of AJODHYA. Faizábád is a comparatively modern place, although there are several ancient Muhammadan buildings in its vicinity. Mansúr Alí Khán, Viceroy of Oudh, in 1732 passed a portion of his time here; but his successor, Shujá-ud-daulá, took up his permanent residence at Faizábád, and made it the Provincial capital in 1760. Twenty years later, Asaf-ud-daulá moved the court back again to Lucknow. The city has fallen into decay since the death of the celebrated Bahu Begam in 1816, who had held it rent-free since 1798, and who lived and died here. Her mausoleum is described as 'the finest building of the kind in Oudh.' The Dílkushi palace adjoining the tomb was the residence of this lady; it is now the opium storehouse. Several other Muhammadan buildings, mosques, gardens, etc., all more or less out of repair, are situated in the town. The population of the town proper in 1881 was 38,828, namely, Hindus, 26,602; Muhammadans, 11,976; Christians, 209; and 'others,' 41; area of town site, 867 acres. The cantonment contained a population of 5099, consisting of Hindus, 3034; Muhammadans, 963; Christians, 1044; and 'others,'

58; area, 708 acres. Total, town and cantonments, 43,927, namely, Hindus, 29,636; Muhammadans, 12,939; Christians, 1253; 'others,' 99. The military force consists of a battery of Royal Artillery, one European, and one native infantry regiment. Faizábád together with Ajodhya constitutes one municipality, with a total population of 71,405. The municipal income (1882–83) amounted to £5204, of which £4347 was derived from octroi; and the expenditure to £5845. There are numerous markets in the town, and trade is very active, the estimated annual sales within municipal limits amounting to about £150,000, of which upwards of one-half consists of wheat, rice, and other food-grains. Large station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

Faizpur.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 11′ N., and long. 75° 56′ E., 72 miles north-east of Dhuliá. Population (1881) 9640, namely, 8055 Hindus, 1295 Muhammadans, 195 Jains, and 95 'others.' Faizpur is famous for its cotton prints, and its dark blue and red dyes. There are about 250 families who dye thread, turbans, and other pieces of cloth, and print cloth of all sorts. Weekly timber market, and one of the chief cotton marts in Khándesh.

Fakhrpur.—*Parganá* in Bahráich District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nánpára *parganá*; on the east and south by Bahráich and Hisámpur; and on the west by Sítápur District. A large *parganá*, which has undergone many changes of area. As at present defined, it comprises a great portion of what was once Firozábád, while, on the other hand, a number of its former villages have been transferred to Hisámpur. The Sarju and a small sluggish stream, the Bhakosa, flow through the *parganá*, and several well-defined deserted channels mark old beds of the Gogra (Ghagrá), which now flows to the south. Water is commonly met with so close to the surface, that irrigation is scarcely required. Area, 383 square miles, of which 217 are under cultivation, and 114 are cultivable waste. Government land revenue, £9248; average incidence, 1s. $5\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre of cultivated area, $11\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre of assessed area, and $9\frac{7}{8}$d. per acre of total area. The principal landlord is the Rájá of Kápúrthala, on whom the estate of the rebel Rájá of Baundi has been conferred at a quit-rent for ever. Sardárs Fateh Singh and Jugjot Singh, reputed grandsons of Mahárájá Ranjít Singh of Lahore, are the grantees of the Cháhlári Rájá's estate. The Rájá of Rahwá's estates also lie almost entirely in this *parganá*. Of the 288 villages which compose the *parganá*, 227 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure, and 161 are permanently settled. Population (1881) 151,737, namely, males 79,897, and females 71,840. The most numerous castes are Bráhmans, Ahírs, and Chamárs. Three lines of road intersect the *parganá*. Eight market villages, the most

important of which is at Jáitápur, which has a large well-frequented *bázár*. Government schools in nine villages, besides an English town school at Baundi maintained by the Kapurthála State; police station at Sísia; post-offices at Baundi and Sísia.

Fakhrpur.—Village in Bahráich District, Oudh; on the high road from Bahramghát to Bahráich, 10½ miles from the latter town. Lat. 27° 25′ 55″ N., long. 81° 31′ 41″ E. The village is pleasantly situated among park-like groves of mango trees, but is unhealthy, owing to bad water; goitre is very prevalent. In former times the place is said to have been held by Ahírs. In Akbar's reign it was made the head-quarters of a *parganá* named after it, a fort was built, and a *tahsíl* or revenue collectorate established. Up to 1818, the *tahsíldár* had his fort and treasury here, but in the latter year the larger portion of the *parganá* was incorporated in the Baundi estate (*iláká*), and from that time the fort has ceased to be used. The village has been held now for many years by the revenue officers of the *parganá*. The population of the village has dwindled away from 2140 in 1869 to 387 in 1881. Saltpetre is prepared, but not to any great extent. No market. Government school.

Fakírganj.—Commercial village in Dinájpur District, Bengal. Exports of rice, gunny cloth, and jute.

Fakírhát.—Village in the Sátkhira Sub-division of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 23′ 30″ N., long. 89° 7′ 15″ E., 5 miles south-east of Kálíganj police station. Bi-weekly market. Traffic carried on entirely by means of water communication.

False Point.—Cape, harbour, and lighthouse in Cuttack District, Bengal; situated in lat. 20° 20′ 10″ N., and long. 86° 46′ 25″ E., on the north of the Mahánadí estuary. The harbour consists of an anchorage, land-locked by islands and sandbanks, with two navigable channels. False Point takes its name from the circumstance that it was often mistaken by ships for Point Palmyras, one degree farther north. It is the best harbour on the Indian coast between the Húglí and Bombay. The lighthouse stands on the point which screens it from the southern monsoon, in lat. 20° 19′ 52° N., long. 86° 46′ 57″ E. The anchorage is protected by two sandy reefs, named Long Island and Dowdeswell Island, and is completely land-locked by the latter. Point Reddie, on Dowdeswell Island, shelters the entrance. Farther in lies Plowden Island, for the most part a low jungly swamp, with a limited area of high ground suitable for building purposes, and with good drinking water. The harbour is safe and roomy, the channel properly buoyed, and a soft mud bottom prevents injury to vessels running aground. The port is now open throughout the year, and ships of large tonnage can lie in security in all weathers. Two separate channels lead inland

from the anchorage—the JAMBU river on the north, and on the south the BAKUD creek, a short deep branch of the Mahánadí. Bars of sand intervene between the anchorage and these channels, but at full tide cargo-boats and steamers enter with ease. Several tidal creeks, narrow and winding, but navigable by country boats throughout the year, connect False Point with the Dhámra and Bráhmaní rivers on the north, and with the Deví on the south.

History of False Point Harbour.—It is only within the last twenty years that the capabilities of False Point Harbour have been appreciated. Prior to this period—although the place is but two days by steamer from Calcutta—no regular communication existed, and the exports, consisting chiefly of rice, were entirely in the hands of native shipmasters from Madras. The port was opened in 1860, about which date an enterprising French firm in Calcutta established an agency for the export of rice, and the East Indian Irrigation Company perceived its natural advantages as an import depôt. But it was during the year of the great Orissa famine (1866), when Government was anxiously exploring every means of throwing supplies into the Province, that the capabilities of False Point were first publicly appreciated. The formation of new canals has been the making of the port. The KENDRAPARA CANAL, which extends from Cuttack for a distance of 42½ miles, connects False Point with the capital of Orissa; and False Point has now become the entrepôt for the trade of the Province. A small steamer plies regularly between the entrance to the canal near the harbour and Cuttack. The British Indian General Steam Navigation Company make the place a regular port of call; it is also visited by French ships from Mauritius, which take rice and oil-seeds for that island, and also for Havre, Bordeaux, and other French ports. False Point was formerly considered very unhealthy; but the malaria to which it owed this evil reputation has to a great extent disappeared. A harbourmaster and superintendent of customs have been appointed.

Trade.—In 1860, 4 vessels, with a total tonnage of 2830 tons, entered the port; the value of exports was returned at £6759. During the years between 1863–64 and 1883–84, the trade has increased from £51,921 to £295,763, or upwards of five-fold, and the number of vessels cleared from 16 (tonnage, 8681) to 146 (tonnage, 199,497). The chief trade is with other Indian ports.

Falta.—Village in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the Húglí, nearly opposite its point of junction with the Dámodar. Lat. 22° 18′ N., long. 88° 10′ E. The site of an old Dutch factory, and also noted as the place of retreat of the English fleet on the capture of Calcutta by Suráj-ud-daulá. A small fort has been constructed within the last few years at Falta opposite the mouth of the Dámodar. It is surrounded by a moat fifty feet broad, within which is a mud wall

twelve or fourteen feet high, with a top width of about ten feet, and with a slope of two to one. Mounted with eight guns.

Faradnagar.—Village in Noákhálí District, Bengal, and head-quarters of the Pheni Sub-division; situated in lat. 22° 57′ N., and long. 91° 30′ 15″ E., near the Grand Trunk Road, 2 miles north of the Big Pheni *ghát* at Bhurbhuriá.

Farah.—Town in Agra *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 19′ N., and long. 77° 49′ E., on the route from Agra to Muttra (22 miles north-west of the former, and 13 miles south-east of the latter), a mile from the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná). Population (1881) 3642, namely, 2448 males and 1194 females. Well supplied with water. Small *bázár* and police station. Formerly the seat of a *tahsílí* in Agra District, which has been abolished, and the area divided between Agra and Muttra Districts. For police and conservancy purposes a small municipal income in the shape of a house-tax is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Fardápur.—Village in the Nizám's territory, Deccan, 4 miles from the Ajantá pass; the site of a travellers' bungalow used by visitors to the Ajantá caves.

Farídábád.—Town and municipality in Ballabhgarh *tahsíl*, Delhi District, Punjab; 16½ miles south of Delhi. Lat. 28° 25′ N., long. 77° 21′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 7427, namely, Hindus, 5367; Muhammadans, 1988; Sikhs, 5; and 'others,' 67; number of houses, 923. Municipal income in 1881-82, £386, or 1s. 0⅜d. per head of the population. The town formed part of the estate held by the Rájá of Ballabhgarh, but was confiscated with the rest of his possessions after the Mutiny of 1857. It was founded in 1605 A.D., during the reign of Jahángír, by one Shaikh Faríd, from whom it takes its name. The main *bázár* is a fairly broad street, with houses of brick on each side; but with this exception, the buildings are of mud and mean in appearance. Police station, school-house, *sarái*, and dispensary. Little trade, no manufactures.

Farídkot.—One of the Sikh cis-Sutlej States, under the political superintendence of the Punjab Government; lying between 30° 13′ 30″ and 30° 50′ N. lat., and between 74° 31′ and 75° 5′ E. long., south-east of Firozpur (Ferozepur) District, and north-west of Patiála. It consists of two portions, Farídkot proper and Kot-Kapúra. Area of the State, 612 square miles, with 168 villages and 10,031 houses. Population (1881) 97,034, namely, males 53,848, and females 43,186; average density, 158 persons per square mile; persons per village, 578. The population consists mainly of Sikhs, who numbered 40,187 in 1881; Hindus, 27,463; Jains, 349; and Muhammadans, 29,035. The chief of the State is head of the Barár Ját tribe. One of his

ancestors, named Bhallan, in the time of the Emperor Akbar, laid the foundation of the greatness of his house. His nephew built the fort of Kot-Kapúra, and made himself an independent ruler. Early in the present century, the Kot-Kapúra District was seized by Ranjít Singh, and in the following year Farídkot was also taken; but when the British Government demanded from the Mahárájá the restitution of all his conquests made on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj) during 1808 and 1809, Farídkot was unwillingly resigned to its former possessors. The revenue of the State was at that time small and fluctuating. The country was entirely dependent on rain for cultivation, and this falls in small quantities, and in some years not at all. Wells were difficult to sink, and hardly repaid the labour of making them, the water being from 90 to 120 feet below the surface. On the outbreak of the Sikh war in 1845, the chief, Pahár Singh, exerted himself in the English cause, and was raised to the rank of Rájá, and further rewarded by a grant of half the territory confiscated from the Rájá of Nábha, his ancestral estate of Kot-Kapúra being then restored to him. Wazír Singh, the son and successor of Pahár Singh, served on the side of the British during the second Sikh war in 1849. In the Mutiny of 1857 he distinguished himself by seizing mutineers, guarding the Sutlej ferries, and attacking a notorious rebel, Sham Dás, whose village he destroyed. For these services, Wazír Singh was duly rewarded. He died in April 1874, and was succeeded by his son, Bikrám Singh, the present (1883) Rájá, who was born in 1842. He holds his State under a *sanad* of 1863, by which the domain belongs for ever to the Rájá and his male heirs lawfully begotten. The right of adoption has also been accorded. The Rájá has abandoned excise and transit duties in exchange for compensation. His estimated revenue is £30,000 per annum. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. The military force consists of 200 cavalry, 600 infantry and police, and 3 field guns.

Farídkot.—Chief town of Farídkot State, Punjab, and residence of the Rájá; situated 60 miles south-west of Ludhiána town, in lat. 30° 40′ N., and long. 74° 59′ E. Population (1881) 6593, namely, Muhammadans, 3241; Hindus, 1862; Sikhs, 1226; and Jains, 264; number of houses, 1132.

Farídpur (*Furreedpore*).—District in the Dacca Division of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 47′ 53″ and 23° 54′ 55″ N. lat., and between 89° 21′ 50″ and 90° 16′ E. long. Bounded on the north and east by the Padmá or main stream of the Ganges; on the west by the Garái, Barásiá, and Madhumatí rivers; and on the south by a line of swamps and the Nawá Bhangni. The civil station and chief town of the District is FARIDPUR town, on the bank of the Mará Padmá. Area, 2267 square miles; population (1881) 1,631,734.

Physical Aspects.—Farídpur District is essentially a fluvial creation, and exhibits the later stages in the formation of the Gangetic delta. In the north, the level is now comparatively well raised, and lies above water during the summer and cold weather months. But from the town of Farídpur the level gradually declines down the delta to the southward, until on the confines of BAKARGANJ DISTRICT the country sinks into one vast swamp, never entirely dry, and in this tract all communication is carried on by means of boats. The soil changes from a light sandy loam in the north, to a comparatively recent alluvial deposit farther south. The highest levels, as in other deltaic Districts, are found along the river banks, being formed by the annual deposits from overflow. The lowest levels lie midway between the rivers, as such situations obtain less silt from overflows, and remain perennial swamps. The population clings to the higher levels; and the villages are chiefly built along the river banks, or on the margin of the swamps, surrounded with a picturesque jungle of bamboos, betel palms, and plantains. These villages or hamlets consist of mud huts, and often stand on artificially-raised sites, which, during the rainy season, rise from the universal expanse of water like wooded islets.

The District forms a tongue of land between two great rivers, the Ganges, or Padmá as it is locally called, and the Madhumatí, and is cut through by their innumerable distributaries and lines of swamps. The chief of these intersecting water-ways is the Ariál Khán; and these large rivers, with the Barásiá, are navigable throughout the year by large trading boats of four tons or a hundred *maunds* burthen. It is impossible to attempt a list of the streams navigable by boats of two tons burthen during the rainy season, as at this time of the year nearly the whole country is submerged, and boats of this or even greater size can ply over almost its whole surface. The numerous small watercourses or *kháls* with which the District is intersected in every direction, and which dry up in the cold weather and the hot season, are all open for navigation during the rains. All the large rivers, but particularly the Ganges or Padmá, are subject to constant alluvion and diluvion on an extensive scale, large islands or *chars* being constantly thrown up in one place, and washed away in another. Changes in the river channels are also constantly taking place. A local tradition exists that the Ganges or Padmá formerly took a southerly direction at Salímpur, a village about 25 miles north of Farídpur town, and after running by Kanáipur, flowed towards the east, and discharged itself into the present Padmá, which was then but a narrow stream. The old channel has now silted up, and is known by the name of the Mará (or dead) Padmá. The Padmá, indeed, has now several channels, flowing between constantly-shifting sandbanks and islands; but it is impossible to give any idea of

the changes in these channels, sometimes one being navigable, and sometimes another. Similar changes on a considerable scale occur in the Chandná. About fifty years ago, the *bázár* of Madhukhálí was situated on the south bank of the river, when the stream suddenly changed its course, and began to flow past the south of the *bázár*. A subsequent alteration of channel has again removed the market-place to the south bank of the river. The village of Baikunthpur, which was formerly on the north bank of the Chandná, is now situated on the south bank of that river. The banks of the rivers are generally shelving on one side, and high and abrupt on the other, according to the set of the current. The beds of the Padmá, Chandná, Madhumatí, and Barásiá are sandy; that of the Kumár is of clay and a vegetable mould formed by a species of water-weed called *pátá sáola*, which is used as a clarifier in the manufacture of sugar. The banks of the Farídpur rivers are for the most part cultivated, and dotted with numerous villages, sometimes extending in a continuous line for many miles. The alluvial islands (*chars*) in the Padmá are generally covered with jungle on the Farídpur side of the river, but on the opposite bank they are cultivated and contain numerous densely-populated villages. The principal islands formed by the Ganges in its course along the northern boundary of Farídpur are—Char Uján, area about 9179 acres; Char Teprákándí, about 5127 acres; Char Nasírpur, about 11,735 acres; and Char Bhadrásan, about 7340 acres. During the rainy season, not a single river in the District is fordable; but in the dry season there are numerous fords on the Chandná and Kumár. The Padmá, Madhumatí, and Ariál Khán are not fordable at any time of the year at any place within the limits of Farídpur District.

The marshes in the District are too numerous to be mentioned in detail, but the most important are—(1) The Dhol Samudra, situated a short distance to the south-east of Farídpur town. During the height of the rains, this marsh expands into a lake, the water extending to near the houses of the town. At that time it is about eight miles in circumference, but gradually dwindles in the cold season, and in the hot weather is only a mile or two in circumference. (2) Bíl Patiá in the south of Goálandá Sub-division, about three miles in length by two in breadth; not navigable in the dry season. (3) Bíl Háthimohan, about two and a half miles in length by two in breadth; not navigable in the dry season. (4) Bíl Rankolí, about fifteen miles in length by six in breadth; not navigable in the dry season. It contains several villages within it, built on artificially-raised sites. (5) The Nasíb Sháhí marsh in Goálandá Sub-division, about sixteen miles long and six broad, but like the others mentioned above, only navigable during the rains. It also contains artificially-raised villages within its limits.

In the southern part of the District, the marshes are too numerous to mention; and in fact the whole of the police circle (*tháná*) of Maksúdpur is one vast swamp, with isolated strips of dry land during the dry season. Within this swamp are several artificially-raised mounds, inhabited by low-caste Chandáls, who keep up communication from village to village, and often from house to house, by boat, for the greater part of the year. The largest marshes in the south of the District are the Mottar, Chandra, and Bakhshir *bíls*.

In a fluvial District like Farídpur, numerous towns or trading marts are inhabited by a community living mainly by river traffic. The principal articles of river trade, which form the chief support of these towns or markets, are—rice, tobacco, salt, cotton, oil, linseed, mustard, sugar, molasses, cloth, pulses, jute, onions, piece-goods, iron, tin, copper, coal tar, mustard oil, brass and copper manufactured utensils, and timber.

Fisheries are extensively carried on, and contribute in no small degree to the material wealth of the District. Fishermen from the neighbouring Districts of Dacca and Pabná, as well as those resident in Farídpur, take annual leases of certain portions of the rivers for catching *hilsá*, *rohi*, *kátlá*, *dháin*, *pángás*, and other large fish, which yield them a considerable profit. In 1870, the annual value of the traffic carried on in the produce of the fisheries was estimated at £20,000. With regard to the fisheries in the marshes in the southern part of the District, the following extract is taken from the Revenue Survey Report of Farídpur:—'These *jhíls*, and the streams that traverse them, afford also an inexhaustible supply of various kinds of fish, crabs, and prawns to the various local markets. At certain seasons of the year, no small quantity of the fish is conveyed to the Calcutta and other markets along the canal or Sundarban routes, by which all the boat traffic is carried on between the eastern Districts and the metropolis. The fish in this case are stored in reservoirs constructed in the middle of the boat, and closed by a grating at bottom, through which a constant and fresh supply of water is afforded. The boats are well-manned and swift, and are pulled day and night. The fishermen cast the dead and dying fish overboard *en route*, and by these means keep a considerable percentage alive and in a fair condition for market.' As might be expected, fish forms a large part of the food of the people; and in certain seasons, when the supply of fish is unusually abundant, the lower classes may be said to almost live on this diet for months together.

Marsh or river reclamation, with a view to the extension of cultivation, has never been practised in Farídpur. The marshes could be drained by artificial watercourses connecting them with the rivers, but the gain would probably not be commensurate with the

heavy expenditure. Canes and reeds are largely produced in these marshes, and an extensive trade in mats and baskets manufactured from them is carried on throughout the District, chiefly by the Chandáls, a low-caste of Hindus. The cutting of thatching grass and *hoglá* (a broad-leaved flag) for roofs, etc., and the collection of mussels and snails for burning into lime, affords occupation to many of the poorer classes. Excellent clay is also found in many parts along the banks of the marshes and rivers, from which potters make the largest kind of earthen pots for packing fish and for holding grain and water, measuring ordinarily 4 or 4½ feet high by 9 or 10 feet in circumference. Long-stemmed rice is extensively cultivated in the marshes and swamps. The stem increases in length in proportion to the increase of the water; that is to say, it rises with the rise of the water, and ceases to grow as the water ceases to rise. This description of rice, of which twenty-four different varieties are cultivated in Farídpur, can be grown in water to a depth of 18 feet.

No mineral products, such as coal, metals, lime, or building stone are found. Pearls were formerly obtained from the Kumár river; they were found in the shell of a species of mussel, and the shells after the extraction of the pearls were burnt and converted into lime. As late as 1867, the Collector reported that the pearl fishery on the Kumár yielded about £400 or £500 a year. No revenue-yielding forests, or wild vegetable productions of marketable value, are found in Farídpur; nor any marketable jungle products (except a red powder called *ábír*, manufactured from the root of a wild plant called *sati*), or uncultivated pasture grounds. The larger sort of wild animals found in the District consist of buffaloes, leopards, and hog, the latter of which swarm in all the villages in the north-west and south of the country, and do considerable damage. In some parts, their depredations are such that the outlying lands of a village are unable to find cultivators from this cause. The villagers seldom destroy these animals, which are allowed to breed and multiply undisturbed. The smaller varieties of game consist of hares, wild geese and ducks, snipe, curlew, teal, quails, dove, green pigeon, etc. The fisheries have been already alluded to; and with this exception, the fauna does not contribute in any way towards the wealth of the District.

History.—The present District of Farídpur has been a gradual growth, arising out of the desire to bring the courts nearer to the people. Under Akbar's redistribution of Bengal (1582), Farídpur was included within the *sarkár* of Muhammad Abúd; and for the next two centuries remained exposed to the piratical incursions of the Maghs or Burmese from the seaboard, and of the Assamese, who sailed down the Brahmaputra from the north, ravaging the country on either side.

During the first 46 years of British rule (1765–1811), it formed an outlying corner of the great Dacca District, under the name of Dacca Jalálpur. As the head-quarters then lay at Dacca town, on the farther side of the Ganges, distinct courts were erected at Farídpur in 1811; and from this year the separate existence of the District dates. After various transfers and readjustments, Farídpur now forms a compact administrative entity, shut in between the Ganges on the east and the Madhumatí on the west.

Population, etc.—No accurate returns of the population exist before the Census of 1872. Since that year, the Sub-division of Mádárípur, excepting Gaurnadi *thánú*, has been transferred from Bákarganj District to Farídpur, increasing the area of Farídpur to 2267 square miles. Allowing for these transfers, the area comprising the present District contained in 1872 a total of 1,502,436 inhabitants. In 1881, 1,631,734 persons were enumerated, showing an increase of 129,298 persons, or 8·6 per cent., in nine years. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2267 square miles; number of towns and villages, 4655; number of houses, 228,444, of which 224,134 were occupied and 4310 unoccupied. The population numbered 1,631,734, namely, 805,989 males and 825,745 females; proportion of males in total population, 49·4 per cent.; average density of population, 719·78 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·05; persons per village, 349; houses per square mile, 101; inmates per house, 7·28. The two most densely-populated police divisions (*thánás*) in 1881 were Sibchar, in the newly-acquired Mádárípur Sub-division, with a density of 959; and Bhángá, in the head-quarters Sub-division, with 939 per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population was returned as follows:—Muhammadans, 974,983, or 60 per cent.; Hindus, 653,992, or 40 per cent.; Christians, 2741; Buddhists, 13; and Brahmos, 5.

The Muhammadans are divided into the two classes of Sunnís and Shiás, of whom the former in 1881 numbered 965,254, and the latter 7018, while 2711 were returned as unspecified. The Musalmán population is proportionately most numerous in the north of the District, and the great majority are employed in agricultural pursuits. A few are traders, dealing in jute and hides.

Daulatpur village, in this District, was the birthplace of Hájí Sharitullá, the founder of the Faráizí or reformed sect of Muhammadans, which has rapidly spread throughout the whole of Eastern Bengal during the past fifty years. The Faráizís are properly a branch of the great Sunní division, and in matters of law and speculative theology they profess to belong to the school of Abú Hanifa, one of the four authoritative commentators on the Kurán. Their essential point of

difference from the general body of Sunnís consists in their rejection of traditional custom. They declare that the Kurán is the complete guide to spiritual life; and they therefore call themselves Faráizís or followers of the *faráiz* (plural of the Arabic word *farz*), the divine ordinances of God alone. Historically, they represent a Puritan reaction against the corrupt condition into which Islám had fallen in Bengal at the close of the last century, and in this as in other respects bear an analogy to the Wahábís of Arabia. There can be no doubt that the vast majority of Musalmáns in the delta of the Ganges and Brahmaputra are descendants of the aborigines, who willingly embraced Islám at the time of the Muhammadan conquest, in preference to remaining outcasts beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. But though they became converts in outward profession, they still retained many of the superstitious ceremonies of their former life, and joined in social merry-makings with their fellow-villagers. The reform inaugurated by Haji Sharit-ullá was a protest against such pagan practices, and a return to the simple habits and pure monotheism of the Kurán. In especial, he objected to the squandering of large sums of money on marriage festivities, and to the exclusive employment of certain persons to perform the rite of circumcision. The articles of faith on which he chiefly insisted were the duty of the holy war (*jihád*), the sinfulness of infidelity (*kufr*), of introducing rites and ceremonies into worship (*bida'at*), and of giving partners to the One God (*shirk*). Externally, a Faráizí may be known by the fashion of wrapping his *dhuti* or waistcloth round his loins without crossing it between his legs, so as to avoid any resemblance to a Christian's trousers, and by his ostentatious mode of offering prayers with peculiar genuflexions in public. The rapid spread of the Faráizí movement in the lifetime of its founder affords sufficient justification for his enthusiasm. On his death, his followers met together and elected his son, Dudu Miyán, as their spiritual chief. This man appears to have abused the implicit confidence imposed in him. He was charged with having applied the subscriptions to his own use, and with many tyrannical acts. On more than one occasion he was sentenced to terms of imprisonment by the British courts, and he finally died in obscurity at Dacca in 1862. He left no direct successor, but three of his sons, together with a nephew, set themselves up as leaders. Two of the sons are now (1883) living, and maintain themselves in that profession. At the present day the Faráizís do not exhibit any active fanaticism, nor would it be just to accuse them, as a class, of disloyalty to the British Government. The majority of them are cultivators of the soil, but not a few occupy the rank of traders, being especially active in the export of hides. All alike are characterised by strictness of morals, religious fervour, and faithful promotion of the common interests of the sect. They are, however, intolerant and bigoted, and their contempt

for the opinion of others has been the cause of frequent affrays and disturbances, which have brought them under the notice of the authorities.

The Hindus number 653,992, or 40 per cent. of the District population. The following list exhibits the principal Hindu castes having upwards of 5000 members:—Bráhman, priests, landholders, and Government officials, 46,915 in number; Baniyá, traders, 8700; Barhái, carpenters, 5273; Baruí, growers of *pán* or betel leaf, 8201; Chandál, a semi-aboriginal caste or tribe, principally inhabiting the swamps and marshes in the south, and the most numerous caste in the District, 244,923. A separate account of this people will be found below. Dhobí, washermen, 9827; Goálá, cowherds and milkmen, 6316; Jaliyá, fishermen, 28,607; Kaibarttá, fishermen and cultivators, 24,010; Lohár, blacksmiths, 9550; Kapáli, weavers, 12,189; Káyasth, clerks, landholders, and Government officials, the second most numerous caste in the District, 84,193; Kumbhar, potters, 10,783; Nápit, barbers, 19,165; Súdra, cultivators, 15,109; Sunrí, wine-sellers and merchants, 34,491; Telí, oil-sellers and merchants, 12,994. Aboriginal tribes who have embraced Hinduism, chiefly Bunás and Bhumijs, number 6552; and Vaishnavs and other Hindus who reject caste, 7672.

The Chandáls, a race of Hinduized aborigines, referred to above as the most numerous caste in the District, number a million and a half in Lower Bengal, of whom considerably more than one-half are found in the Districts of the Dacca Division. They are doubtless one of those aboriginal races who embraced Hinduism, and, like the Kaibarttás, are mentioned in the sacred epics of the Mahábhárata and Rámáyana. They are semi-amphibious in their habits, and capable of enduring the extremity of exposure and fatigue. They are of a superior physical development to the mass of the population, and this is attributed, not to their being of a different race, but to their mode of life: inhabiting a river District, and constantly employed in rowing, the muscles of the arms and chest get more developed than in men who pass their days at the plough. From time immemorial, the Chandáls have been despised by the upper-class Hindus, and a Bráhman thought himself defiled by even treading upon the shadow cast by the body of a Chandál. A great part of them accordingly turned Musalmáns under the Afghán and Mughal Governments, and the remainder are now endeavouring to push themselves forward to a comparatively respectable position in the Hindu social scale. A recent Collector of the District, about 1870, thus reported on this interesting race, which so largely peoples the dreary and unwholesome swamps in the south of Farídpur:—'These Chandáls believe themselves to have been once a complete Hindu community, consisting of all castes from Bráhmans downwards, who, on having the misfortune to be cursed in a

body by a vengeful Bráhman of great sanctity in Dacca, quitted their homes and emigrated in a body to the southern wastes of Farídpur, Jessor, and Bákarganj. There, with great perseverance and toil, they raised in the centre of the swamps large hillocks from 12 to 20 feet in height, whereon they built their homesteads in the dry weather in order to preserve their cattle and goods during the inundations. Here they are located to the present day, cultivating the swamps with rice and jute, and carrying on the occupations of fishing and bird-catching, varied with mat and basket weaving, and the cutting of grass for thatching purposes and for the consumption of their cattle. In the rains the water rises over 10 feet, and leaves their artificial mounds like so many islands in a huge lake. Locomotion then becomes impossible except by boat; while they have to collect their cattle and keep them in their homesteads, feeding them on what fodder they may have stored up during the dry season, and on a grass which, like the rice, grows with the rise of the water, and in appearance very much resembles paddy. These cattle have often to remain for days standing above their bellies in water; and as their food has to be stored up for them in the homesteads, they are fed on the minimum amount necessary to support existence. Consequently, by the end of the rainy season, they are reduced to skeletons, and very many die in the meantime. It is this that renders it impossible to introduce a larger and less hardy description of cattle. However, notwithstanding all the difficulties this Chandál community has to contend against, they are strongly attached to the home of their adoption, and resist all inducements to abandon it. Efforts have been made to transfer some of them to the Sundarbans, but without success. They prefer remaining in the region to which they have adapted themselves perseveringly and laboriously, where they are not likely to be envied in their lot, and where they can dwell together as a distinct community, with their own priests, castes, and traditions. Their occupations, and their enforced practice of going about in boats during a great portion of the year, have rendered the Chandáls a hardy and muscular race.'

Of the Christian Population, numbering 2741, natives of India numbered 2591; Eurasians, 74; Europeans and British-born subjects, 72; 'others,' 4. In religion, the great majority, 2416, belong to the Baptist persuasion, a branch of the Baptist Church in Australia having established missions in Farídpur town, and in some of the rural villages. The converts are chiefly Chandáls, poor in circumstances, and are looked down upon by the other inhabitants. The Roman Catholic community numbered 68; the Church of Scotland, 88; Church of England and other Protestants, 108 members.

Division of the People into Town and Country.—The population is entirely rural, the so-called urban population only amounting to 1·91

per cent. of the whole. Only four towns contain upwards of five thousand inhabitants, namely, MADARIPUR, 12,298; FARIDPUR, 10,263; GOALANDA, 8652; and KUTABPUR, 7458 inhabitants. Out of a total of 4655 villages, more than one-half, or 2514, were returned in the Census Report as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 1401 from two to five hundred; 524 from five hundred to a thousand; 180 from one to two thousand; 22 from two to three thousand; 10 from three to five thousand; 2 from five to ten thousand; and 2 from ten to fifteen thousand inhabitants.

The Material Condition of the People, owing to the impetus which has been given to tillage, together with the increased price of produce, has much advanced of late. The cultivating classes, who form the great mass of the population, are visibly better off than in former years, and they are gradually acquiring a taste for what may be called luxuries. Although about one-half of the cultivators are reported to be in debt, they are said to be able to live comfortably after paying the interest on their old standing loans. The middle class of people, however, who live on fixed salaries, do not fare so well, and the increased price of provisions has considerably straitened their circumstances. There is but little immigration into, and no emigration from the District. The Bunás, who were formerly employed as labourers in the indigo factories, appear to have settled permanently in the District after the factories were closed. They do not amalgamate with the rest of the inhabitants; and although they live in the same towns and villages with them, build their houses close together in a quarter by themselves. In origin, they are immigrants from Chutiá Nágpur. Many persons annually proceed to Calcutta and elsewhere as boatmen and in other capacities, but almost invariably return to their homes. Many also leave the District during the harvest season as reapers, going principally to Bákarganj. As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 divides the male population into six main classes, as follows:—Class (1) Professional, including Government officials and professional men, 15,784; (2) domestic service, 9827; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, messengers, etc., 26,776; (4) agricultural class, including cultivators, gardeners, herdsmen, and others engaged about animals, 374,986; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, 53,987; (6) indefinite and unproductive (comprising 15,758 general labourers, and 308,871 male children and persons of no specified occupation), 324,629.

Agriculture, etc.—Staple products of the District:—Rice, of four principal varieties, viz. *áman* (or winter rice), *aús* (the autumn crop), *boro* (or rice grown on low or marshy ground), and *ráidá*. Of the four descriptions of rice, the two first-named are the more generally cultivated, and form the staple crop of the District; the two latter are

almost entirely consumed by the peasant who raises them. The *áus* and *áman* rice are sown broadcast, the seeds being generally intermixed, on lands neither too high nor too low. Where the *áus* is separately cultivated, it is generally planted in pretty high ground, in rotation with a crop of sugar-cane. *Aman* rice grows luxuriantly in rather low ground where the rain-water collects. The best qualities of *áman* rice are transplanted from nurseries into carefully-prepared land, which, by repeated ploughings early in the rains, is worked into a field of knee-deep mud. This rice is always kept for sale, the cultivator using the coarser varieties for his own consumption. The *áman* rice is of two genera, the *baran* and *chhotná*,—the former comprising 23, and the latter 13 distinct varieties. Of these species, the *baran* is regarded by the Hindus as sacred, while the *chhotná* is not; and a Sanskrit couplet (*sloka*) is quoted from the *Sástras* containing a precept to avoid the use of this rice on account of its ripening before the setting in of the cold weather. The *baran áman* is sown in March, April, and May, and reaped from November to January. The impure *chhotná áman* is sown broadcast in moist lands in March, April, and May, and reaped in October and November. The *áus* rice consists of 27 different varieties, sown between March and May, and reaped between June and August. *Boro* rice consists of 5, and *ráidá* of 4 varieties; both are sown in marshy lands from October to December, afterwards transplanted, and harvested in March, April, and May. All the rice sown in high lands and in shallow water is cut close to the ground when ripe, so as to leave as little stubble as possible, and to save all the straw for the cattle. In deep water, however, only the ears are cut off; the stems remain in the fields till the water subsides, when they are either burnt for manure, or collected for household fuel, or for thatching purposes.

The other crops comprise—wheat, barley, oats, maize, pulses, tubers, oil-seeds, fibres, sugar-cane, date-palm, indigo, *pán*, safflower, fruits, and tobacco. About one-half the area of the District is under cultivation. Good land in Farídpur yields 22 cwt. of *áman* paddy per acre, and rents at 12s.; the highest rent paid is 24s. an acre. From 10 to 12 acres are considered a fair-sized holding for a peasant family. Much land is held on the *maurúsí* tenure — a lease in perpetuity, conveying rights of inheritance and transfer upon the cultivator, and not liable to enhancement of rent. *Hawálá* (*háolá*) and *ním-hawálá* tenures, of a similar character, are also common in this District.

The cultivators, as a rule, are well off, as about 75 per cent. of them have 'occupancy' rights in their holdings. The cattle and implements required for 'a plough of land,' or a holding of 5 acres, represent a capital of about £4, 10s.; a peasant family can live respectably on £1

a month. Wages and prices have risen greatly of late years. In 1855, day-labourers received 2¼d. to 3d. per diem—in 1883, from 4½d. to 7½d.; carpenters in 1855, 12s. to 16s. a month—in 1883, £1 to £1, 8s. The price of common rice rose from 2s. 8d. per cwt. in 1860 to 3s. 6d. in 1870, and 4s. in 1883; and other staples in proportion. The cultivators do much of their ploughing and reaping by a system of 'mutual assistance' or *gáti*. The following extract from the *History and Statistics of the Dacca Division* (Farídpur section, p. 197) explains the system pursued for obtaining assistance in tillage:—'In ploughing and weeding, a cultivator has generally to procure extra hands; for this, however, no payment is tendered, as the person so assisted repays the debt by working himself for those who helped him. Sometimes a certain number of ploughs are engaged and paid for, but this is not usually the case. Those who do not labour at the plough themselves employ this kind of labour, or else hire farm-servants, who are paid by monthly wages. The reaping is generally done by labourers, who are paid out of the produce. The general agreement seems to be, that the labourer takes for himself one bundle out of every five or six reaped by him.' Another mode of getting assistance for agricultural purposes was formerly sometimes resorted to. When a cultivator required extra hands for ploughing or weeding, he had only to promise a good dinner and he was sure of getting as many men as he needed. This system, however, has fallen into disuse, as the return on the labour thus obtained hardly compensated for the expenses incurred in providing a substantial dinner. No class of day-labourers exists in Farídpur, neither possessing nor renting land. The higher class of husbandmen generally engage servants, who cultivate their fields, as well as perform other work, and who are paid by monthly wages. Most of the servants of this class, however, have lands of their own, which, during their absence, are cultivated by their brothers or other relatives. Children are largely employed in the fields, but not women.

Natural Calamities.—Partial blights occur nearly every year, being chiefly caused by insects and worms. Floods occur annually on a more or less destructive scale, and are due to the rising of the rivers Padmá, Garái, and Chándná before they enter Farídpur. The waters spread over the whole District, but seldom cause a general failure of the crops; they did so, however, in 1824, 1838, and 1871. During the Bengal famine of 1866, there was no failure of the rice harvest in Farídpur itself, but the heavy price of grain told severely upon the people. It is stated that during that famine, when the price of rice was between 9 and 11 lbs. for a shilling during four months, men who in ordinary times would be considered in fair circumstances were gradually reduced to one meal a day, and the poorer classes were obliged to ask for a share of the meals of their more fortunate neighbours. The

distress, however, never reached such a pitch in Farídpur as to render relief operations on the part of Government needful. The country is not protected by embankments or other defensive works. Partial droughts occur at intervals, but no precautions are taken against them. The large landholders have not yet undertaken reclamation works with a view of draining the numerous swamps and marshes.

Manufactures, etc. — The most important manufacture of Farídpur, and the staple article of District trade, is sugar, prepared both from the juice of the date-tree and from the cane. Indigo was formerly manufactured to a considerable extent, but all the European factories are now, with one exception, closed. A fine matting called *sital páti*—very cool to sleep on during the hot season—is skilfully woven out of a peculiar wild grass. All the local manufactures are conducted by the workers on their own account, and in their own houses, excepting sugar, which is made by hired labourers on monthly wages. Chief articles of trade—rice, pulses, oil-seeds, oil-cake, jute, sugar, molasses, tobacco, chillies, onions, cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts, *ghí*, salt, piece-goods, iron, spices, timber, mustard oil, fish, poultry, hides, mangoes, fruit, oranges, potatoes, honey, brass, bell-metal and copper utensils. GOALANDA, at the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, is one of the principal river marts in Eastern Bengal, being the terminus of the railway and the point of departure of the Assam steamers. The chief seats of local trade are—Mádárípur, Bhángá, Gopálganj, Boálmári, Pángsá, Godarbázár, Sibchar, and Madhukhálí. The water-ways carry the entire traffic of the District. There are only four important lines of road in Farídpur—viz. the Calcutta and Jessor road, from Farídpur town to Dhobághátá on the Barásiá, 19 miles in length, with a branch of 4 miles to Boálmári; the Belgáchhí road, from Farídpur to Kálinagar, 16 miles in length; and the Talmá road, from Farídpur to Talmá, 11 miles in length. These roads are often damaged by floods, and at times lie under water for many days. The Eastern Bengal Railway runs for 28 miles from west to east through the north of the District, having its terminus at Goalándá. A native association called the *Suhrid Sabhá*, with its head-quarters at Calcutta, has a branch at Farídpur, and is fairly successful in promoting female education, holding examinations of *zanána* ladies and others, and granting rewards and certificates to those who reach a certain standard. There is also at Farídpur a flourishing joint-stock native banking company, called the 'Farídpur Loan Office, Limited,' believed to be the first institution of the kind in Eastern Bengal. The shares are at a high premium.

Administration, etc.—Owing to changes in jurisdiction, it is impossible to show accurately the increase in the revenue of Farídpur. In 1850–51, the total revenue of the District was only £10,229, of which £4171 was derived from the land; in that year the total expenditure was

£8374. By 1870–71, or within twenty years, the revenue had risen to £58,868, of which £27,321 came from the land, and £11,980 from stamps; while the expenditure in the same period had grown to £25,013. In 1882–83, after the transfer of the greater part of Mádárí-pur Sub-division from Bákarganj, the total revenue, including local cesses, had increased to £104,662, of which £55,224 was derived from the land, and £29,385 from stamps; the expenditure in the same year being returned at £30,000. The extent to which the sub-division of landed property has progressed may be inferred from the fact that in 1851 there were only 165 estates on the rent-roll, with an average payment of £23, 1s. 0½d.; whereas in 1870 the number of estates was 2307, and the average payment £11, 16s. 4d. In 1883, the number of estates was 5933; but this increase is due more to the transfer of small estates from neighbouring Districts, especially Bákarganj, than to the sub-division of original estates. The average payment from these 5933 estates in 1883 was £9, 6s. 2d. In 1883, there were in the District 8 stipendiary magistrates' courts, 3 benches of magistrates, 9 revenue and 10 civil courts. The regular police force numbered 392 men of all ranks (including a river patrol of 8 men, with 4 boats), or 1 man to every 5·78 square miles. This also includes the municipal police. The village watch was 2964 strong. The total police force, therefore, amounted to 3356 men. In 1882, the daily average number of prisoners in Farídpur jail was 313; total number admitted during the year, 1129. The hard-labour prisoners were chiefly employed in enlarging the jail buildings; some also in making bricks and bamboo or rattan articles, and in oil-pressing. Since the introduction of Sir George Campbell's reforms (1872), primary education has rapidly extended. Active measures are being taken to establish schools among the Chandáls. In 1882, there were 480 schools aided or inspected by Government, attended by about 14,500 pupils. This does not include private indigenous schools; and the Census Report of 1881 returned 27,404 boys and 568 girls as under instruction, besides 48,912 other males and 767 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. In 1881, the number of villages in Farídpur District was returned at 4655; average population, 349. There are two administrative Sub-divisions (FARIDPUR and GOALANDA), and 3 municipalities (FARIDPUR, GOALANDA, and MADARIPUR); total municipal income (1882–83), £1388.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Farídpur is very damp; the rains often set in at the end of April, and by the end of June the greater part of the District is under water. Average annual rainfall for the ten years ending 1882, 70·7 inches. Malarial fevers, cholera, and rheumatism are prevalent. There are dispensaries at Farídpur, Goálanda, and Mádárípur, at which 543 in-door and 10,138 out-door

patients received medical relief in the year 1882. [For further information regarding Farídpur, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 255–362 (London: Trübner & Co., 1876). Also the *Revenue Survey Report of the Districts of Jessore, Farídpur, and Bákarganj*, by Colonel J. E. Gastrell (Calcutta, 1868); Account of Farídpur printed in the *Report on the History and Statistics of the Dacca Division* (Calcutta, 1868); the *Census Report of Bengal* for 1881; *Administration and Departmental Reports for Bengal* from 1880 to 1883.]

Farídpur.—The *Sadr* or head-quarters Sub-division of Farídpur District, Bengal, comprising the five *thánás* or police circles of Farídpur, Bhúshná, Awánpur, Bhánga, and Maksúdpur, lying between 22° 52′ 30″ and 23° 38′ N. lat., and between 89° 34′ and 90° 14′ E. long. Area, 860 square miles; number of villages, 1917; houses, 88,397. Population (1881) 620,545, namely, males 304,072, and females 316,473. Hindus numbered 239,449; Muhammadans, 380,555; Christians, 486; Bráhmos, 5. Average density of population, 721·5 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 2·23; houses per square mile, 105; persons per village, 324; persons per house, 7. In 1882, the Sub-division contained 5 civil and 7 criminal courts. The regular District police consisted of a force of 212 men of all ranks; *chaukídárs* or village watchmen numbered 1171.

Farídpur. — Chief town and civil station of Farídpur District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the small river Mará Padmá, in lat. 23° 36′ 25″ N., and long. 89° 53′ 11″ E. Population (1881) 10,263, namely, Hindus, 5349; Muhammadans, 4856; and 'others,' 58; area of town site, 5001 acres. To the south lies the Dhol Samudra, a fresh-water lake, which affords ample drainage except in the height of the rains; water is scarce in the dry season, but otherwise wholesome. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £644; rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 3d. per head of population within municipal limits. In January, an annual agricultural exhibition is held; this show, first instituted in 1864, has of late much increased in importance, and has given a considerable impetus to the manufactures and agriculture of the District. The South Australian Baptist Mission has a branch in the town; and the Bráhma Samáj was represented in 1883 by 20 followers. An anniversary Samáj is held every year, which is largely attended both by Bráhmas and orthodox Hindus.

Farídpur. — Southern *tahsíl* of Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of the single *parganá* of Farídpur. Area, 249 square miles, of which 177 are cultivated. Population (1881) 111,141, namely, males 60,254, and females 50,887. Hindus numbered 96,233; Muhammadans, 14,898; and 'others,' 10. Number of towns nd villages, 323. Land revenue, £15,914; total Government

revenue, £17,781; rental paid by cultivators, £30,846; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0¼d. This *tahsíl* is described as the most unproductive tract in the whole of Bareilly District, consisting for the most part of a plateau with light siliceous soil, undulating in places into gleaming sandy ridges which present the appearance of low hills. In years of abundant rainfall such soil often yields a good autumn crop. But as no facilities for irrigation exist, its produce in ordinary years hardly repays the labour of cultivation. Two tracts—the basins of the Rámganga river along the western and south-western border of the *tahsíl*, and of the Bághúl and Kailás rivers, a wedge-shaped tract along the western border, with its apex in the centre of the *tahsíl*—are exceptions to the general sterility. In the former tract, the soil is a rich, deep loam, whose natural humidity renders irrigation superfluous, even in seasons of drought. The latter is composed of excellent loam and clay, and is watered both from dams on the rivers and from wells. The Bareilly branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway crosses the *tahsíl*, with stations at Fatehganj East and Farídpur. Parallel to the railway runs the Rohilkhand Trunk Road. The only other road is the Bareilly-Bísalpur line, which traverses the northern border. There are no important manufactures; and trade is confined chiefly to the sale of agricultural raw produce, the principal markets being at the towns of Farídpur, Tisua, and Fatehganj East. The *tahsíl* or Sub-division contains 1 criminal court, with 3 *thánás* or police stations; strength of regular police, 38 men, besides 297 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen.

Farídpur.—Chief village of Farídpur *tahsíl*, Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 12′ 17″ N., and long. 79° 4′ 45″ E., on the route from Bareilly town to Sháhjahánpur, 14 miles south-east of the former. Population (1881) 5881, namely, Hindus, 3471; Muhammadans, 2402; and 'others,' 8. Area of town site, 95 acres. A small municipal revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. The town is long and narrow, with few brick-built houses, but many well-built mud structures of the better class. It is a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Market twice a week; no important manufactures. The public buildings consist of the usual *tahsílí* or Sub-divisional offices, two *saráis* (native inns), post-office, school, road bungalow, and several temples. A fine mango grove is situated near the village, and the surrounding country is well cultivated. Water and supplies are abundant, and a good encamping ground lies to the south, beside the Sháhjahánpur road. The town, which was formerly called Pura, was originally founded by some insurgent Katehriya Rájputs, who were expelled from Bareilly city in the middle of the 17th century. It derives its present name from one Shaikh Faríd, a mendicant, or,

according to others, a governor who built a fort here in Rohillá times, 1748–74.

Farukhábád. — District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 46′ 31″ and 27° 42′ 51″ N. lat., and between 79° 9′ 59″ and 80° 3′ 59″ E. long. Farukhábád forms the south-eastern District of the Agra Division. It is bounded on the north by Budáun and Sháhjahánpur; on the east by the Oudh District of Hardoi; on the south by Cawnpur and Etáwah; and on the west by Máinpuri and Etah. Area, 1719 square miles. Population (1881) 907,608 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at FATEHGARH; but FARUKHABAD, on the west bank of the Ganges, is the most populous town in the District.

Physical Aspects. — The District of Farukhábád consists of an irregular strip of country in the middle Doáb, together with a small outlying tract on the left or eastern bank of the Ganges. The former portion presents the usual monotonous features of the great alluvial plain to which it belongs. Starting from the banks of the river, a belt of land, varying from a broad stretch of well-watered lowland to a mere strip of sand, is first encountered, bounded to the west by the high cliff which marks the ancient limit of the narrower Ganges valley. Above this cliff rises the general upland plain, divided into two main sections by the little stream of the Káli Nadi, and further intersected by the lesser watercourses of the Isan. Each of these minor divisions displays the same general characteristics, consisting of a narrow lowland belt along the banks of the boundary rivers, together with a central level of sandy soil (*bhúr*), rising by a series of ravines from the valley below, and culminating in a watershed of loamy earth, often accompanied by marshy lakes and wide expanses of the white saline efflorescence known as *úsar*. The dorsal ridge of loam comprises, roughly speaking, the irrigated portion of the District, where wells can be sunk with little difficulty or expense, and cultivation lies in scattered patches, like green islands amongst the barren stretches of *úsar*. The trans-Gangetic tract, on the other hand, consists entirely of lowland, scarcely ever rising above the level of the yearly inundations, and liable to a sterile deposit of sand after heavy rains. Much of the land is subject to erosion by the river; and the areas of the villages vary greatly from year to year, as the floods devour or cast up again the cultivable soil. The Rámgangá passes through the extreme eastern angle, which it often overflows, forming large but temporary swamps. The whole District is uniformly though not thickly wooded, and the strip lying along the high bank of the Ganges, a poor and barren tract, has a comparatively large proportion of trees.

History.—The District of Farukhábád possesses great antiquarian interest, owing to the presence within its boundaries of KANAUJ, the

capital of a powerful Hindu kingdom in the earliest centuries of the Christian era. The city, however, was entirely transformed under Muhammadan rule, and the architectural remains in the present town and its neighbourhood are almost entirely Muhammadan. It lies on the left bank of the Káli Nadi, 4 miles from the modern bed of the Ganges, which once flowed close below its walls. Ruins of ancient buildings extend over the lands of five villages, and occupy a strip of land about four miles long and from one to two miles broad; but as their walls consisted entirely of brick, the foundations alone now remain. The relics are constantly used as a storehouse of building material, so that the traces of the ancient metropolis grow fainter day by day. The principal Hindu monument is the shrine of Rájá Ajái Pál, supposed to be the prince conquered by Mahmúd of Ghazní, and killed in 1021 A.D. by the Chandel Rájá of Kálinjar. There are, however, some Muhammadan monuments which are much more conspicuous. The famous Gupta dynasty of Kanauj ruled over the whole upper basin of the Ganges for about six centuries, from 315 B.C. to 275 A.D. Their coins and other monuments are still found in considerable numbers over the whole of their wide domain, and have yielded a comparatively consistent chronology to the patient labours of Lassen, Rajendralála Mitra, and English scholars. Tradition points to Thákur colonists as the earliest Aryan settlers in the District, after the extermination of the Bhars, as the aboriginal inhabitants are here universally called. The tract south of the Káli Nadi was peopled by the celebrated Jái Chánd, Rájá of Kanauj; but the northern angle passed into the hands of its present occupants some seven generations later, after the Musalmán invaders had completed the overthrow of its early Tuár possessors. We know nothing of the District, however, from authentic historical records, up to a comparatively modern period of Muhammadan rule. During the 18th century, the northern portion of Farukhábád, together with many *parganás* now lying in Etah and Máinpuri, constituted the *jágír* of the Nawáb of Farukhábád; while the southern region was administered by deputies sent from Lucknow. In 1751, on the death of Alí Muhammad, the Rohillá chief (*see* BAREILLY DISTRICT), the Emperor refused to acknowledge Háfiz Rahmat Khán as his successor, and despatched the Farukhábád Nawáb to reduce that turbulent leader to order. Rahmat Khán, however, defeated and slew the imperial lieutenant, four of whose *parganás* in Budáun he proceeded to annex. Safdar Jang, Wazír of Oudh, thereupon plundered the defenceless territories of the Farukhábád Nawáb; but his interposition led to a union between the Farukhábád Rohillás and their Bareilly (Bareli) clansmen, under the leadership of Háfiz Rahmat Khán. The allied forces defeated Safdar Jang, re-took Farukhábád, and laid siege to Allahábád; while another body invaded Oudh

itself. But Safdar Jang called in the aid of the Maráthás, defeated the Rohillás at Bisauli, near Aonlá, and once more recovered Farukhábád. His successor, Shujá-ud-daulá, conquered all Rohilkhand in 1774, with the aid of an English force, granted by Warren Hastings; and the whole country remained in his hands until its cession to the British in 1801.

From the period of its passage under a firm and regular Government, the District remained free from historical events up to the date of the Mutiny. News of the outbreak at Meerut (Merath) reached Fatehgarh on the 14th of May 1857; and another week brought tidings of its spread to Alígarh. The 10th Native Infantry showed symptoms of a mutinous spirit on the 29th of May; but it was not till the 3rd of June that a body of Oudh insurgents crossed the Ganges, and arranged for a rising on the following day. The European officials and residents abandoned Fatehgarh the same evening; but several of them returned to Fatehgarh a few days later, and remained till the 18th, when another outbreak occurred, and the rebels placed the Nawáb of Farukhábád on the throne. The 41st Native Infantry, from Sítápur, marched into Fatehgarh, and the Europeans began to strengthen the fort. On the 25th, the rebels attacked their position, which became untenable by the 4th July. The fort was then mined, and its defenders escaped in boats. The first Fatehgarh boat reached Cawnpur, where all its fugitives were murdered by the Náná on 10th July; the second boat was stopped 10 miles down the Ganges, and all in it were captured or killed except three. The Nawáb governed the District unopposed till the 23rd of October, when he was defeated by the British at Kanauj. Our troops passed on, however, and the Nawáb, with Bakht Khán of Bareilly, continued in the enjoyment of power until Christmas. On the 2nd of January 1858, our forces crossed the Káli Nadi, and took Fatehgarh next day. The Nawáb and Firoz Sháh fled to Bareli. Brigadier Hope defeated the Budáun rebels at Shamsábád on the 18th of January, and Brigadier Seaton routed another body on the 7th of April. In May, a force of 3000 Bundelkhand insurgents crossed the District and besieged Káimganj; but they were soon driven off into the last rebel refuge, in Oudh, and order was not again disturbed.

Population.—The population of Farukhábád, in common with the neighbouring Districts of Etah and Etáwah, appears to have now reached the stationary stage, and has indeed shown a decline of late years. In 1865, the population of the District (which then contained about 400 miles of area more than it does at present) was returned at 917,496. At the next Census, in 1872, on an area corresponding to the present District, the population was returned at 917,178; while in 1881 it had fallen to 907,608—a decrease of 9570 since 1872. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area, 1719 square miles; number of towns and villages,

1723; houses, 133,966. Total population, 907,608, namely, males 490,508, and females 417,100; proportion of males in total population, 54·0 per cent., a figure which suggests that the practice of female infanticide, formerly so common among the Rájput clans in Upper India, has not been entirely suppressed. Average density of population, 528 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·0; persons per village, 526; houses per square mile, 78; inmates per house, 6·7. Classified according to religion, the population is returned as follows:—Hindus, 804,624, or 88·65 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 101,284, or 11·34 per cent.; Jains, 814; Sikhs, 60; and Christians, 826. Among Hindus, the Bráhmans numbered 83,696 persons. The Rájputs, descendants of the original colonists, and still the leading landowners in the northern half of the District, were returned at 62,991 persons. South of the Káli Nadi, in the tract formerly subject to the Oudh Wazírs, the Rájput Thákurs were for the most part dispossessed by the severe fiscal exactions of the Lucknow court. The other principal castes and tribes, according to numerical superiority, but not to social rank, are the following:—Chamár, the most numerous caste in the District, although the lowest in social estimation, 95,949; Kurmí, 93,983; Ahír, 87,080; Kachhí, 74,552; Lodhí, 32,027; Kahár, 31,173; Gadariá, 30,126; Baniyá, 27,937; Korí, 17,425; Nái, 16,802; Telí, 16,424; Dhánuk, 15,582; Káyasth, 14,454; Dhobí, 12,509; Lohár, 11,747; Barhái, 10,814; Bhúrjí, 10,546; Kumbhar, 8292; Bhangí, 7234; Sonár, 6019. The Muhammadans are divided according to sect into 99,395 Sunnís and 1889 Shiás. The Musalmán population includes 1212 Rájputs and 19 Mewátis by race. The Christian community consists of 298 British-born and 69 other Europeans, 78 Eurasians, and 381 native converts.

Division into Town and Country.—With the exception of 130,221 persons, residing in eight towns containing above 5000 inhabitants, the population is entirely rural. These eight towns are—FARUKHABAD, the largest and most important town in the District, and the main centre of commerce and communications, population 62,437; FATEHGARH, the civil station and administrative head-quarters, 12,435; KANAUJ, 16,646; KAIMGANJ, 10,443; SHAMSABAD, 8271; CHHIBRAMAU, 7990; TIRWA, 6220; and TALIGRAM, 5779. Of the 1723 towns and villages, 565 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 651 had from two to five hundred, 337 from five hundred to a thousand, 127 from one to two thousand, 26 from two to three thousand, 9 from three to five thousand, 4 from five to ten thousand, 2 from ten to fifteen thousand, 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand, and 1 upwards of fifty thousand. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into the following six groups:—(1) Professional, including civil and military and the learned professions, 6956; (2) domestic servants, inn

and hotel keepers, etc., 1210; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 10,479; (4) agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, and sheep and cattle tenders, 216,157; (5) industrial, including manufacturers and artisans, 54,463; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 35,907 general labourers, and 165,336 male children and persons of unspecified occupation), 201,243.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1719 square miles, all but 88 square miles pay Government revenue. Of the assessed area, thus amounting to 1630 square miles, 348 were uncultivable, 313 cultivable waste, and 969 actually under tillage in 1882–83. The usual agricultural seasons of the Doáb prevail throughout—the *kharíf*, or autumn crops, being sown in June and harvested in October or November; while the *rabí*, or spring crops, are sown in October or November and reaped in March or April. Rice, maize, *bájra*, *joár*, and cotton, with the lentils (*arhar* and *moth*) grown among the last-mentioned three crops, form the staples of the autumn harvest, covering a total area in 1882–83 (including twice-cropped land) of 367,054 acres. Wheat and barley, with gram and peas either intermixed with them or grown separately, and opium, are the spring products. These covered (also including two-crop lands), 355,694 acres. Indigo forms the chief intermediate (or late hot-weather and early rainy season) harvest. The cultivation of potatoes has been introduced, especially in the neighbourhood of Farukhábád itself, and the smaller towns of Káimganj, Shamsábád, and Chhibramau. In the villages near the city, the system of a triple crop (one of them potatoes) is in full working. The cultivation of sugar-cane gives rise to an exceptional rotation of crops. When the autumn harvest has been gathered in November, the land remains fallow, and undergoes frequent ploughings for the next sixteen months, and the cane is planted in the second following March. It is not cut till January or February of the second year. Cultivators with rights of occupancy have a fairly comfortable livelihood; tenants-at-will pay somewhat heavier rents and clear a smaller margin of profits. Occupancy tenants hold 64 per cent. of the whole cultivated area; and where the proprietors do not themselves till their lands, they obtain the best plots, which the landlords would otherwise have kept as homestead. The total adult male agricultural population, including field labourers, in 1881 was 215,418, cultivating an average of 3·04 acres each. The total population dependent on the soil, however, was 572,815, or 63·11 per cent. of the total District population, giving an average of 1·51 acre per head of the agricultural population. Government assessment, including rates and cesses, £145,812, or an average of 4s. 7¾d. per cultivated acre; amount of rent actually paid by the cultivators, £265,372, or an average of 8s. 1¼d. per cultivated acre. The average rent rates per acre ruled as follows in 1877:—Resident tenants, 7s. 11d.; non-resident, 6s. 7d.;

although for exceptionally poor lands, or for lands growing specially valuable crops, rents vary from 1s. to £5 an acre. The principal land-owning tribes are the Thákurs, Bráhmans, and Musalmáns, who hold about 36, 20, and 21 per cent. of the District respectively. Coolies and unskilled town labourers receive 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 7½d. The prices-current of food-grains ruled as follows in 1882–83:—Wheat, 6s. 3d. per cwt.; best rice, 16s. per cwt.; common rice, 7s. 4d. per cwt.; *joár*, 4s. 7d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 4s. 9d. per cwt. These prices are considerably more than double of those which prevailed in 1803.

Natural Calamities.—The famines of 1770 and 1783 doubtless affected Farukhábád, as they did the whole of the North-Western Provinces, but the existing accounts are too scanty to admit of separate estimates for each District. In subsequent famines, Farukhábád suffered severely in the four worst years, 1803–04, 1815–16, 1825–26, and 1837–38. The area affected by minor scarcities did not extend so far northward as to embrace the *parganás* then included under the present District; and the southern portion of the existing territory, originally incorporated with Cawnpur and Etáwah, is believed to have been much more liable to dearth than the northern region; although the opening of the canal in the southern portion of the District, and other less intelligible causes, has rendered this tract comparatively safe in recent times of scarcity. In the disastrous season of 1837–38, Farukhábád suffered with great severity, nearly one-fourth of the cultivated area being abandoned. In August 1837, relief measures were adopted, reaching their maximum in March 1838. The famine of 1860 was confined to the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand, and scarcely affected this District, except by raising the price of grain. The last scarcity, in 1868–69, occasioned considerable distress in Farukhábád for a short period, but the dearth rapidly passed away. Relief operations continued from February to October 1869.

Commerce and Trade.—The cereal crops produced in the District barely suffice for local needs, and no surplus for export exists; on the contrary, grain is largely imported from Oudh and Rohilkhand for the use of Farukhábád city. But potatoes and other products are largely exported. The receipts at the ferries and bridges have increased five-fold since 1844, a fact which shows how greatly more active the traffic of the District has become during the interval. The city of Farukhábád contains a few native banking establishments; but their operations do not extend to the villages of the District, where the professional money-lender and the *zamíndár* still retain the exclusive power of making cash advances, and keep a firm hold over the indebted peasantry. The prevalent rates of interest are from 18 to 37 per cent. on personal security, 6 to 15 per cent. on jewels or other pledges, and 10 to 24 per cent.

on mortgages of landed property. Fatehgarh town is noted for its manufacture of tents, and also for its gun-carriage factory, which since 1830 has been the sole depôt for supplying the Bengal Army with gun-carriages and other vehicles required for garrison, field, and siege artillery. The principal manufactures of the District are sugar and indigo. Two European planters have between them thirteen indigo factories, and several minor concerns are worked by natives. Other manufactures include the weaving of cloth and chintz, and the extraction of saltpetre. The Grand Trunk Road formed till recently the chief connecting link between Farukhábád and the surrounding country, keeping up the communication with the east and north-west; but in 1881, the Cawnpur-Farukhábád light railway was opened, and this now forms the chief communication with the east. The same line is about to be extended to Háthras, and operations have (1883) been commenced. This line will be the chief route to the Panjab, Agra, Rohilkhand, and perhaps even Bombay. The District has been hitherto injuriously affected by its distance from the railway system. When the Grand Trunk Road and the river Ganges formed the main channels of commerce, the situation of Farukhábád admirably adapted it for the trade in which its merchants were chiefly engaged; but when the railway offered a new and better outlet for the produce of the North-West, the course of traffic deserted the city for towns more favourably situated on the modern route. The road into Rohilkhand crosses the Ganges at Fatehgarh, where a bridge of boats suffices for the requirements of traffic during the greater part of the year; but interruption is caused in the rains by the substitution of ferry-boats for a standing bridge. Internal communication is well maintained by an excellent system of unmetalled roads, while abundant feeders in every direction connect the various villages with each other and with the main thoroughfares.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Collector-Magistrate, a Joint Magistrate, an Assistant and two Deputy Magistrates, besides the ordinary fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. Farukhábád is the head-quarters of a civil and sessions judge, whose jurisdiction is entirely confined to the District. The whole amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised within the District in 1876, was £197,229, of which £124,673, or more than five-eighths, was derived from the land-tax. In 1882-83, the total imperial revenue was returned at £156,975, of which the land tax contributed £122,523. The cost of civil administration in the same year, as represented by the salaries of officials and police of all kinds, was £34,043. The last land settlement was commenced in 1863, and completed in 1874; it resulted in an increase of revenue by £12,127. Farukhábád contains two places of confinement for criminals—the central prison and the

District jail, both of which are situated within a short distance of Fatehgarh. The central jail had a daily average of 1078 prisoners in 1882, of whom 43 were females. The District jail contained in the same year a daily average of 340 prisoners, of whom 8 were females. The total strength of the District regular and municipal police force was 906 men; and the cost of their maintenance was £8884, of which £6479 was contributed from Provincial revenues, and £2405 from municipal or local funds. There was also a rural or village police force of 2004 men, and a road patrol of 68 men, maintained at a cost of £7500. These figures give an average of 1 policeman to every 0·57 square mile of area and every 305 of the population; while the cost of maintenance amounted to £9, 10s. 7½d. per square mile and 4⅓d. per head. There are 15 imperial and 12 local post-offices; and there is a railway telegraph station at Fatehgarh. There were, in 1882, 166 Government inspected schools in the District, with a joint roll of 5319 pupils. There are also a number of private uninspected schools; and the Census Report of 1881 returned 6488 boys and 347 girls as under instruction, besides 20,169 males and 419 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The city of Farukhábád has a *zilá* school, and an Anglo-vernacular school is established at Fatehgarh. The District contains only one municipality, Fatehgarh-cum-Farukhábád.

Medical Aspects.—Farukhábád bears the reputation of being one of the healthiest Districts in the Doáb. The general elevation is considerable, the climate is dry, and the country possesses remarkable freedom from epidemics. The trans-Gangetic *parganás*, however, must be excepted as low-lying and damp. The annual mean temperature was 77° F. in 1874; the lowest monthly mean being 58° in January, and the highest 94° in May. The observatory was closed in 1875. The cold weather begins later than in the Districts to the west, and lasts from about the end of October to the end of March. The hot weather lasts till the end of June or the beginning of July, when the rainy season sets in, which lasts till October. The average annual rainfall for a period of thirty-five years ending 1881 amounted to 29·5 inches; the maximum being 47·2 inches in 1867, and the minimum 12·1 inches in 1868 (the year of scarcity). In 1881 the rainfall was 27·5 inches, or 2 inches below the average. Fevers prevail in August and September. The total number of deaths recorded in 1882 was 25,389, or 31·3 per thousand of the population, of which 23,010 were owing to fevers. The average registered mortality for the five previous years was 37·55 per thousand. Four charitable dispensaries, at Farukhábád, Fatehgarh, Káimganj, and Mírán-ki-Sarái, afforded relief in 1883 to 36,915 persons, including 1438 in-door patients. [For further information regarding Farukhábád, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. vii. pp. 1–402 (Allahábád, Government Press,

1884). Also *Final Report of the Settlement of the Farukhábád District* by H. T. Evans, Esq., C.S. (1875); *Census Report* of 1881 *for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; Administration and Departmental Reports of the North-Western Provinces* from 1880 to 1883.]

Farukhábád.—Head-quarters *tahsíl* of Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the west bank of the Ganges, and comprising the *parganás* of Bhojpur, Muhammadábád, Pahára, and Shamsábád East. Area, 343 square miles, of which 222 are cultivated. With the exception of a small tract of 4½ square miles, the whole tract lies in the *bangár* or upland portion of the District, along the high cliff above the alluvial basin of the Ganges. Population (1881) 255,127, namely, Hindus, 218,253; Muhammadans, 35,917; Jains, 100; and 'others,' 857. Land revenue, £23,977; total Government revenue, £28,350; rental paid by cultivators, £29,528. The *tahsíl* contained in 1883, 3 civil and 10 criminal courts (including the head-quarter courts); 5 police circles (*thánás*); 217 regular police, and 640 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Farukhábád.—City and municipality in Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 27° 23′ 35″ N., and long. 79° 36′ 50″ E., two or three miles from the right or west bank of the Ganges, which formerly flowed under its walls; distant from Cawnpur 83 miles north-west, and from Etáwah 62 miles north-east. It is the terminus of the Cawnpur and Farukhábád light railway, now (1883) being extended to Háthras. Population (1881) 62,437, namely, males 31,416, and females 31,021. Hindus numbered 42,133; Muhammadans, 18,172; Jains, 98; and Christians, 34. Area of town site, 1802 acres. The town forms a joint municipality with Fatehgarh, the civil station of the District in its immediate neighbourhood. Municipal income in 1882–83, £5530, of which £4877 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3¾d. per head of the population (74,872) within municipal limits. Farukhábád is a handsome and well-built town, with many of its streets shaded by avenues of trees. It was founded about 1714 by Nawáb Muhammad Khán, and named after the Mughal Emperor Farukhsiyyar. A mud fort, once the residence of the Nawábs of Farukhábád, commands an extensive view of the Ganges valley. The trade of the town was formerly considerable, but it rapidly declined on the diversion of commerce by the opening of the East Indian Railway. Now that Farukhábád itself is connected with the general railway system of India, it is hoped that commerce will revive, and there are already encouraging signs of improvement in this respect. *Zilá* school; dispensary; head-quarters at the adjacent civil station of FATEHGARH. For early history and Mutiny narrative, see FARUKHABAD DISTRICT.

Farukhnagar. — Town and municipality in Gurgáon *tahsíl* and

District, Punjab, situated in lat. 28° 25′ N., and long. 76° 51′ 30″ E., in the midst of a sandy sterile tract in the north-west of the District near the Rohtak border, 1½ miles from the terminus of a branch of the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway. Population (1881) 8738, namely, Hindus, 5398; Muhammadans, 2950; Jains, 375; Sikhs, 6; and 'others,' 9; number of houses, 1215. In 1875, Farukhábád contained a population of 10,594, and its recent falling off is attributable to a virulent epidemic fever in 1878–79. Municipal income (1882–83), £822, or an average incidence of 1s. 10d. per head of the population; expenditure, £693. The town is octagonal in shape and surrounded by a high wall with four gates. It has two broad *bázárs* running at right angles to one another, well paved and drained, and flanked with good shops. The other streets and courts are narrow and crooked. The principal export is salt, produced by evaporation from the waters of saline wells in the neighbourhood; and the imports are unrefined sugar, grain, spices, and piece-goods. The salt trade was once considerable, but since the extension of railway communication has cheapened the superior salt from the Sámbhar lake, it has been on the decline. The chief buildings are the Delhi gate; the *Shish máhal* or Nawáb's palace, in which are now located the municipal hall, rest-house, school, police station, and post-office; a fine mosque; large well with stone staircase to the water; and a dispensary. The town was founded in 1713 in the reign of the Emperor Farukhsiyyar, after whom it was named, by a Baluch chief Dalel Khán, better known by his title of Faujdár Khán, the governor of the country. The family held possession of the country till 1757, when the place was conquered by the Játs of Bhartpur. Twelve years afterwards it was recaptured by the grandson of Faujdár Khán; and in 1803, when the British supremacy began, he was confirmed in his possessions and dignities. The family ruled till 1857, when the then Nawáb, Ahmad Alí Khán, was hanged for participation in the rebellion, and the estate was conferred on Tafuzzul Husain Khán, as a reward for good service during the Mutiny, and is still (1883) held by his son, Suráj-ud-din Haidar, who holds the position of an honorary magistrate.

Fatehábád.—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of Fatehábád *tahsíl*, Hissár District, Punjab; distant from Hissár 30 miles north-west. Lat. 29° 31′ N., long. 75° 30′ E. Population (1881) 2992, namely, Muhammadans, 1720; Hindus, 1234; Jains, 37; and Sikh, 1; number of houses, 610. A third-class municipality; income (1882–83), £199; expenditure, £202. Founded by the Emperor Firoz Sháh, and named after his son Fateh Khán. Held at the beginning of the present century by a Bhatti chieftain, Khán Bahádur Khán. North of the town runs a cut from the river Ghaggar, constructed by Firoz Sháh, and still used for purposes of irrigation. Considerable manu-

facture of country cloth; export of grain and *ghí* to Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and the Bágar territory; brisk trade in leather. *Tahsílí*, police station, *sarái*, staging bungalow, and dispensary.

Fatehábád. — *Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the south bank of the river Jumna (Jamuná). Lat. 29° 15′ to 29° 34′ N.; long. 75° 16′ to 75° 51′ E. Area, 241 square miles, of which 163 are cultivated. Population (1881) 104,762, namely, males 56,835, and females 47,927. Hindus numbered 97,543; Muhammadans, 5962; Jains, 1244; and 'others,' 13. Number of villages, 161. The *tahsíl* lies between the Jumna and Utangan rivers, and contains a large ravine area, with a considerable amount of low-lying sandy soil at the foot of the ravines along the rivers. Proceeding inland, the soil gradually changes as the higher lands are approached, and the greater part of the upland area is a good loam, light in places, but of average fertility. Land revenue, £27,000; total Government revenue, £36,873; rental paid by cultivators, £42,885; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 6¾d. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 4 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 44 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 336.

Fatehábád.—Town and head-quarters of Fatehábád *tahsíl*, Agra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 1′ 30″ N., long. 78° 20′ 30″ E., 21 miles south-east of Agra City. Population (1881) 4441. *Tahsílí*, *munsifi*, police station, post-office, boys' and girls' schools. The town has but little trade; small bi-weekly market. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856, which in 1881–82 yielded £93. The town was originally named Zafrnagar, and was changed to Fatehábád by Aurangzeb, after his victory over his unfortunate brother Dárá, in 1658. The Emperor built a mosque here on the spot on which he rested after the battle, as well as a *sarái*, now the *tahsílí*, and a tank, which has now nearly silted up. He also planted a large grove to the south-east of the town, which still remains in tolerable preservation.

Fatehganj (East). — Village and battle-field in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces, lying in lat. 28° 4′ N., and long. 79° 42′ E., on the route from Bareilly to Sháhjahánpur, 23 miles south-east of the former town. Population (1881) 2189. Founded by Shujá-ud-daulá, Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, in commemoration of the British victory over the Rohillás in 1774, which gave him possession of the greater part of Rohilkhand. Háfiz Rahmat Khán, the Rohillá chieftain, fell in this engagement. Station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Police station, post-office, village school, and *sarái* or native inn. Market twice a week.

Fatehganj (West). — Village in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces; famous as the scene of a British victory over the

Rohillás in October 1794. Lat. 28° 28′ N., long. 79° 24′ E. A monument marks the burial-place of the Company's troops, and a carved tomb with minarets covers the remains of two Rohillá chiefs. Police station, encamping-ground, missionary school, and 2 *saráis.*

Fatehgarh.—Town, cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, and station on the Cawnpur-Farukhábád Railway, adjoining the native city of FARUKHABAD, 3 miles to the eastward. Lat. 27° 22′ 55″ N., long. 79° 40′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 12,435, namely, Hindus, 8728; Muhammadans, 3588; and Christians, 119; area, 383 acres. The military station of Fatehgarh dates from 1777, although the town did not pass into the possession of the British until 1802. Farukhábád District having fallen under the power of the Oudh Wazírs, Fatehgarh formed an outpost against the Maráthás; and the British brigade lent to the Nawáb Wazír was stationed at Fatehgarh in 1777. At the cession in 1802, Fatehgarh became the head-quarters of a Governor-General's Agent, and of the Board of Commissioners for the Ceded Provinces. Holkar attacked the fort of Fatehgarh in 1804, but was defeated and put to precipitate flight by the timely arrival of Lord Lake. From this time, nothing eventful occurred in the history of Fatehgarh until the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857, in the course of which nearly the entire population of European blood in the station, upwards of 200 in number, were killed by the rebels. A few who sought flight early in June succeeded in reaching Cawnpur, only to be seized by the Nána and massacred. Those who remained behind, after sustaining a siege of upwards of a week, were forced to abandon the fort, which had been undermined by the rebels, and to betake themselves to the Ganges. On their way down the river, they were attacked by the rebels and villagers on both sides of the river. One boat reached Bithúr, where it was captured; the occupants were taken prisoners to Cawnpur, and subsequently massacred. Another boat grounded in the river the day after leaving Fatehgarh, and the passengers were shot down or drowned in their attempt to reach land. A number of the refugees were brought back to Fatehgarh, and after being kept in confinement for nearly three weeks, were shot or sabred on the parade ground. Their remains were cast into a well, over which has been built a memorial cross, with a memorial church near to it. Fatehgarh still forms a military station of the Meerut division of the Bengal army; the force usually stationed here consists of three companies of European, and two of Native infantry. A Government gun-carriage factory was established at Fatehgarh in 1818, which, since the abolition of the central factory at Cossipore (Kásípur), near Calcutta, in 1830, has been the sole depôt for supplying the Bengal army with gun-carriages and other vehicles required for garrison, field, and siege artillery. The factory is superintended by an

officer of the Royal Artillery, assisted by a commissioned officer of the same corps, and six European overseers. The working establishment in 1883 consisted entirely of natives, the average number employed being about 625 daily. Two native Christian settlements are maintained at or near Fatehgarh, by the American Presbyterian Mission. The Mission dates from the great famine of 1837–38, and was established as an orphanage for children whose parents had died or had abandoned them. As the orphans grew up, houses were built, and lands assigned to them, till a village was formed, and afterwards a second establishment was set up at Burhpur. Many of the native Christians are employed as catechists, and others as domestic or public servants. But the bulk of the community support themselves by tilling the plots of land allotted to them, or by working in the tent factory. This industry was originally established by the Mission, and managed by it. Since the Mutiny, the native Christians have worked it independently, and for some years past as a flourishing Limited Incorporated Company. The Mission maintains a high school, and several elementary schools both for boys and girls in the neighbourhood of the station; also a mission church. Besides the usual public courts and offices, the other public buildings comprise the central prison, District jail, Government and mission high schools, police station, *dák* bungalow, and 2 *saráis* or native inns. Fatehgarh forms a joint municipality with Farukhábád. Municipal income in 1882–83, £5530, of which £4877 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3¾d. per head of the population (74,872) within municipal limits.

Fatehgarh.—Town in Fatehgarh *tahsíl*, Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Population (1881) 4078, namely, 2644 Muhammadans, 1167 Hindus, 263 Sikhs, and 4 'others;' number of houses, 591. A third-class municipality with a revenue in 1882–83 of £204; expenditure, £188; average incidence of taxation, 1s. per head of the population. *Bázár*, police station, school, dispensary, and *sarái.* The town is the seat of a considerable shawl-weaving industry conducted by immigrants from Kashmír.

Fatehjang. — *Tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, situated between 33° 9′ 30″ and 33° 44′ 30″ N. lat., and between 72° 25′ 30″ and 73° 3′ 30″ E. long. It contains the Khán-i-Múrat range, and the eastern half of the Chitta Pahár hills. Area, 798 square miles. Population (1881) 107,100, namely, males 56,377, and females 50,723; average density, 134 persons per square mile. Muhammadans numbered 96,959; Hindus, 9085; Sikhs, 105; 'others,' 951. Revenue of the *tahsíl* (1883), £10,283. The administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár* and 2 honorary magistrates, presiding over 2 civil and 3 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 37 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 169.

Fatehjang.—Town and head-quarters of Fatehjang *tahsíl*, Ráwal Pindi District. Lat. 33° 35′ N., long. 72° 38′ E. Population (1881) 4875, namely, Muhammadans, 3327; Hindus, 1527; Sikhs, 16; 'others,' 5. The town is situated on a branch of the Northern Punjab State Railway from Ráwal Pindi to Kohát, midway between the Khán-i-Múrat range and the Chitta Pahár hills. There is no municipality. The town contains a court-house, police station, staging bungalow, *sarái*, school-house, and dispensary. The railway station is half a mile to the north of the town.

Fatehkhelda.—Town in Buldána District, Berár; situated in lat. 20° 11′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 27′ E., on the small river Bhogáwati, an affluent of the Pengangá. Population (1881) 3250. The original name of the town was Shakarkhelda, but it was changed to Fatehkhelda ('Field of victory') in commemoration of a decisive success gained here by the Nizám in 1724 over Mubáriz Khán, who was slain on the field of battle. Since the sack of the town by Sindhia's troops in 1803, before Assaye, and the great famine of that year, Fatehkhelda has fallen into decay; and a large extent of ground is covered with ruined habitations.

Fateh Panjál. — Mountain chain in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab, forming a segment of a circle, and bounding the Kashmír valley to the south. Lat. 33° 34′ N., long. 74° 40′ E. Estimated height, about 12,000 feet; total length, 40 miles.

Fatehpur.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 26′ 17″ and 26° 16′ 13″ N. lat., and between 80° 16′ 15″ and 81° 23′ E. long. Fatehpur forms a District of the Allahábád Division. It is bounded on the north by the Ganges, dividing it from Rái Bareli District in Oudh; on the west by Cawnpur; on the south by the Jumna, separating it from Hamírpur and Bánda Districts; and on the east by Allahábád District. Area, 1639 square miles; population (1881) 683,745. The administrative head-quarters are at FATEHPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Fatehpur forms a portion of the Doáb, or great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná), being only separated from their point of junction by a triangular tongue of land, which belongs to the adjoining District of ALLAHABAD. Its main features do not differ from those common to the whole monotonous level enclosed by the two great rivers of Upper India. It consists for the most part of a highly-cultivated plain, whose soil is composed of the loam, silt, and clay deposited in earlier periods by the drainage of the Himálayan slopes. The central portion presents the appearance of an unbroken level, only relieved in places by barren and sharply-defined *úsar* plains, the saline efflorescence of which glistens like hoar-frost in the morning sun, or thickly studded in the

neighbourhood of the villages with leafy groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. A ridge of higher land, forming the watershed of the District, runs through it from east to west, at an average distance of 5 miles from the Ganges. The country is thus divided into two declivities — the one, only a few miles in breadth, sloping rapidly down toward the Ganges on the northern border; the other, with a stretch of some 15 or 20 miles, falling gradually southward till it ends in the wilder valley of the Jumna. The portions of these plains which abut on the two great rivers are seamed in every direction by deep ravines, especially on the banks of the Jumna and its tributary streams. In the extreme west of the District, three large watercourses may be considered to attain the dignity of rivers. The Pándu flows northward into the Ganges; the Rind and the Nún swell the waters of its great confluent. The tract enclosed between the Jumna and the two last-named streams is one tangled mass of ravines, whose scenery is often picturesque and varied. The main channels are fed by innumerable rivulets, each of which cuts its way through beds of nodular limestone into the central gorge; while the sides are clothed with matted jungle, in whose recesses lurk wild boars, wolves, and leopards. Shallow lakes (*jhíls*) abound in the midland portion of the District, which is not drained by any considerable stream. They are generally temporary, being filled during the rains, and drying up in January or February. As long as the water stands in them, wild-fowl of every kind may be found in abundance; and during the hot weather *nílgái* and antelope take refuge in the dry beds, when driven by the harvest from their ordinary shelter among the standing crops. As a whole, the western region is the most cut up by ravines and covered with *bábul* jungle; the central tract is more generally cultivated, though interspersed with frequent patches of useless *úsar;* and the eastern slope, near the Allahábád border, is one unbroken reach of smiling and prosperous tillage.

History.—In the earliest times, Fatehpur was inhabited by the Bhíls, a tribe of non-Aryan aborigines, one of whose kings is mentioned in the Rámáyana as the host of Ráma. At a later date, it appears to have formed part of the wide dominions ruled over by the Rájás of Argal, whose territories stretched from the borders of Kanauj to the gates of Allahábád. The Angal Rájás fought against the Muhammadans as allies of the Kánauj Rájá. Even after the defeat of the latter, they held a more or less independent position until the time of Akbar, who for some shortcoming sent a force against the Angal Rájá. He was defeated and slain, and his forts and palaces razed to the ground. The estate then passed into the hands of the Thákur Rájás of Asothar, as revenue farmers on behalf of the Mughal government. Like the rest of the Doáb, it was overrun in 1194 A.D. by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghorí, and

became thenceforth a portion of the Delhi kingdom. In 1376, the fief of Fatehpur was made over, with Kora in Allahábád and Mahoba in Hamírpur, to the care of a Viceroy known as the Málik-ul-Shark. Order was successfully maintained by this officer during the terrible raids of Timúr, and the country enjoyed comparative security throughout the troublous period which preceded the final establishment of Mughal rule. Bábar conquered the District about 1529; but it still remained a stronghold of the Pathán resistance, and was the centre of the reactionary movement under Sher Sháh, by which Humáyún was driven for a while from the newly-founded throne of his father. During the slow decline of the Delhi dynasty, Fatehpur was entrusted to the Governor of Oudh; but in 1736 it was overrun by the Maráthás, on the invitation of Ajaju, a disaffected landholder of Kora. The Maráthás retained possession of the District until 1750, when it was wrested from them by the Patháns of Fatehgarh. Three years later, Safdar Jang, the practically independent Wazír of Oudh, reconquered the country for his own benefit. In 1759, the Wazír threw off his nominal allegiance to Delhi, and was acknowledged by the British as a sovereign prince in 1765. By the treaty of that year, Fatehpur was handed over to the titular Emperor, Sháh Alam; but when, in 1774, the Emperor threw himself into the hands of the Maráthás, his eastern territories were considered to have escheated, and the British sold them for 50 *lákhs* of rupees to the Nawáb Wazír. As the Oudh Government was in a chronic state of arrears with regard to the payment of its stipulated tribute, a new arrangement was effected in 1801, by which the Nawáb ceded Allahábád and Kora to the English, in lieu of all outstanding claims. Fatehpur at first was divided between the Districts of Allahábád and Cawnpur; but in 1814, a separate charge was erected at Bithúr on the Ganges, which was transferred eleven years later to Fatehpur. The benefits of settled government were nowhere more conspicuous than here. In 1798, the District was described as a waste, whose ruined towns bore lamentable marks of former prosperity. But some half-century later, it is spoken of as a boundless garden, in which fields of sugar-cane, cotton, poppy and cereals alternated with beautiful groves of mango or tamarind, overshading the village mosques and tanks. No event of interest occurred after the introduction of British rule, until the Mutiny of 1857. On the 6th of June, news of the Cawnpur outbreak arrived at the station. On the 8th, a treasure guard returning from Allahábád proved mutinous; and next day the mob rose, burnt the houses, and plundered all the property of the European residents. The civil officers escaped to Bánda, except the Judge, who was murdered. On the 28th of June, the fourteen fugitives from Cawnpur landed at Shiurájpur in this District, and were all killed but four, who escaped by swimming to the Oudh shore. The District

remained in the hands of the rebels throughout the month; but on the 30th, General Neill sent off Major Renaud's column from Allahábád to Cawnpur. On the 11th of July, General Havelock's force joined Renaud's at Khaga, and next day they defeated the rebels at Bilanda. They then attacked and shelled Fatehpur, drove out the rebels, and took possession of the place. On the 15th, Havelock advanced to Aung and drove the enemy back on the Pándu Nadi. There a second battle was fought the same day, and the insurgents were driven out of the District in full flight on Cawnpur. We could not, however, retain possession of the District except just along the Grand Trunk Road; and order was not finally re-established till after the fall of Lucknow and the return of Lord Clyde's army to Cawnpur, when the Gwalior mutineers were finally driven off.

Population.—Fatehpur is one of the Districts where agriculture and population appear to have reached their utmost limits. In 1865, the Census showed a population of 681,053, being a steady increase upon previous returns in 1848 and 1853. In 1872, the Census gave a total population of 663,877, or a decrease of 17,176 persons in seven years. The last enumeration, in 1881, returned the population at 683,745, showing an increase of 19,868 over the returns for 1872, and leaving the population as regards numbers practically the same as in 1865. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1638·7 square miles; towns and villages, 1414; houses, 131,589. Total population, 683,745, namely, males 347,587, and females 336,158. From these data the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 417; villages per square mile, 0·86; houses per square mile, 80; persons per village, 483; persons per house, 5·2. As regards religious distinctions, Fatehpur, like the rest of the Doáb, remains essentially Hindu, in spite of its long subjection to a Muhammadan power. The Census of 1881 returned the Hindus at 609,380, or 89·12 per cent., and the Muhammadans at 74,218, or 10·85 per cent. of the population. The remaining population consisted of 88 Christians, 58 Jains, and 1 Sikh. The number of Bráhmans is 70,427, most of whom are landholders or domestic servants. A few, however, are to be found at Shiurájpur and other places of pilgrimage along the Ganges, as superintendents of the religious bathing-places, priests in the temples, or guides and caterers for the pilgrims. The Rájputs number 44,715 persons. They are generally well-to-do landlords; but as cultivators, they are reputed quarrelsome and lazy, and they do not make good tenants. There are a few villages owned by Káyasth auction-purchasers, and tilled by Thákur peasants, the former proprietors, in which it is said that the landlord dare not show his face from year to year, and that the agent can only collect the rents at great personal risk. Baniyás number 21,586, engaged, as usual,

in commercial pursuits. These three tribes form the upper and more prosperous classes. The remainder of the Hindus, numbering in all 472,652 persons, belong to the Súdra or lower castes. As a rule they are darker, shorter, and more sparely-built than the higher castes, besides often betraying in their features other traces of aboriginal descent. The Kurmís, 39,806 in number, and Káchhís (28,229), are industrious and diligent tenants, the agricultural backbone of the District. They pay higher rents than any other tribes, and pay them easily. The Ahírs (59,399), Lodhís (46,609), and Pásís (29,451) are a turbulent and quarrelsome set, but sometimes make fair cultivators under Thákur masters. It is from them that the criminal class is most frequently recruited; and they also furnish a large proportion of the village watchmen and protective servants. The Garáriyas, who are shepherds and herdsmen, number 22,088; and the Malláhs, boatmen and fishers, 23,297. Next to the Bráhmans, the most numerous caste in the District are the despised Chamárs, the general labouring population, who only emerged from a state of semi-servitude under British rule. The Musalmáns are found chiefly in the north-eastern portion of the District. As a rule, they are more prosperous and energetic than the Hindus, a large number being small *zamíndárs*, but in the towns many have been reduced to great poverty. In Tappa Jár *parganá* there is a considerable body of half-converted Rájputs, who still describe themselves by their caste title.

Division into Town and Country.—The population is entirely rural; in 1881 only three towns contained a population exceeding 5000, namely, FATEHPUR, population 21,328; BINDKI, 6698; and JAHANABAD, 5244. Of the 1414 villages and towns, 498 had less than two hundred inhabitants, 538 from two to five hundred, 224 from five hundred to a thousand, 107 from one to two thousand, 30 from two to three thousand, 14 from three to five thousand, and 3 upwards of five thousand. As regards occupation, the Census Report classifies the male population into six main groups as under:—(1) Professional, including civil and military and the learned professions, 6808; (2) domestic servants, lodging-house keepers, etc., 914; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3878; (4) agricultural, including cultivators, gardeners, sheep and cattle tenders, etc., 161,131; (5) industrial, including manufacturers, artisans, etc., 42,603; (6) indefinite and non-productive (comprising 21,361 general labourers, and 110,892 male children and persons of unspecified occupation), 132,253.

Agriculture.—The District contains 879 square miles of cultivated land, and a very small margin of the available area now remains untilled. The ravine-clad country of the western *parganás* is of course incapable of cultivation, while a few *úsar* plains break in upon the ploughed fields of the central portion; but the greater part of the soil

is cultivated up to a very high point. The fertile black alluvial mould, known as *már*, occurs in several places along the Jumna, and there is a strip of similar deposit between the high and low water mark of the Ganges, on which the best crops of the District are raised. The harvests are those common to the whole Doáb. The *kharíf* or autumn crops are sown after the first rains in June, and ripen in October or November. They consist of rice, cereals, and millets; *joár* and *bájra* being the principal staples. Area under *kharíf* crops in 1882–83, 256,179 acres. As soon as the rains are over and the water has drained off the land, the wheat, barley, gram, oats, peas, and other *rabí* crops are sown, about the end of October, and these ripen from March to May. Area under *rabí* crops in 1882–83, 291,619 acres. Autumn and spring harvests are not generally taken off the same lands within the twelve months; but if the autumn rice crop has been harvested early, the land may be made to produce a *rabí* crop as well. Manure and irrigation are both employed for the spring harvest, but are seldom applied to the *kharíf*. The *jhíls* or shallow lakes of the central *parganás* are of great value for purposes of irrigation. The *rabí* and the rice crops entirely depend upon them. If the rainfall is scanty, the *jhíls* are drained dry by the end of November, the cultivators working night and day in relays to raise the water by means of leathern baskets. There are no canals in the District, and all irrigation is effected by private agency. Irrigated area in 1882–83, 147,733 acres. Of a total area of 1368·7 square miles, all but 1·2 square mile are assessed for Government revenue. The total male adult agricultural population, including field labourers, was returned by the Census of 1881 at 158,317 persons, cultivating 563,392 acres, or an average of 3·53 acres each. The total agricultural population, however, including women and children, numbers 447,116, or 65·39 per cent. of the District population. Total Government assessment, including rates and cesses, £153,911, or an average of 5s. 5½d. per cultivated acre. Total rent paid by cultivators, £220,083, or 7s. 9¾d. per cultivated acre. The condition of the peasantry is far from comfortable, and indebtedness is still their almost universal state. The modes of tenure are those of the Province generally. The caste *pancháyats* have very much the character of guilds or trades-unions. The Kurmí and Káchhí cultivators in *parganás* Ekdála and Dháta have been known to unite together to resist enhancement of their rents. They then pay a fixed rate per plough or per field towards a general defence fund, from which are defrayed the expenses of defending actions brought by *zamíndárs*. Blacksmiths, masons, and carpenters often enforce very strict labour rules among their communities; an artisan is not allowed to work for lower wages or longer hours than his fellows, and piece-

work is discouraged as much as possible. Wages ordinarily rule as follows:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s.; boys and girls get about one-half the wages of adults. The following were the average prices-current of food-grains in 1876:—Wheat, 15⅝ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 3d. per cwt.; common rice, 18¼ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 1d. per cwt.; *joár*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Fatehpur has not suffered so severely from drought of late years as many neighbouring Districts. Famines from this cause occurred in 1770, in 1783, and in 1837. In 1860, scarcely any rain fell in the Doáb, but the worst distress never reached its lower extremity, and Fatehpur escaped with comparative immunity. In 1864, although only 16 inches of rain fell, and the rice crops suffered greatly, there was no actual famine. In 1868 the rain, though more copious, was badly distributed, and with the exception of a single heavy downpour in September, none fell after the middle of July. The solitary shower, however, prevented the crops from utterly perishing; but the autumn harvest was very poor, and as the winter passed away without rain, it became evident that the spring crops would fail in all high places where the land could not be irrigated. In January 1869, relief works were started on a large scale in the southern *parganás*, and about 200 miles of raised roads were constructed. This gave employment to the starving poor till the spring crops were cut in April; and the worst pressure was thus relieved. There has been no severe distress in the District since that date, although in 1870 heavy floods did a great deal of damage to the autumn crops. The scarcity which prevailed throughout Northern India in 1877-78 did not reach famine point in Fatehpur District, although much distress was felt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is mainly in agricultural produce, and is concentrated in the towns of Fatehpur and Naráini. Bindki, however, is the great grain and cattle mart of the District, where dealers from Bundelkhand and the Doáb meet to exchange their produce. Most of the Bundelkhand grain is sent off from the Mauhár railway station, 5 miles north of Bindki. Brass and copper work is turned out in considerable quantities at Khajuha and Kora; and the latter town has likewise some trade in whips and skins. Saltpetre is manufactured to a large extent in the northern portion of the District, from the saline deposits of the *úsar* plains; a good deal of refined salt is also made, but only surreptitiously, as the manufacture is prohibited. The means of communication are ample. The East Indian Railway main line runs through the heart of the District, with five stations, and a total length within its boundaries of 55 miles. The Grand Trunk Road also traverses the District from side to side, with a

length of about 60 miles. Other excellent roads connect Fatehpur with Oudh, Bundelkhand, and the Doáb generally. The Ganges and Jumna afford water communication along the whole northern and southern frontiers. They still carry a large part of the heavy traffic in cotton, grain, and stone, though of course the railway and the Grand Trunk Road have seriously diminished its dimensions. The only fair of any importance is that held at Shiurájpur, on the Ganges, in the first week of November. Its object is primarily religious, but a good deal of business is transacted side by side with the bathing in the sacred river. From 20,000 to 50,000 people often attend it. Horses, cattle, whips, shoes, and toys are the chief articles sold.

Administration.—The District staff usually consists of a Collector-Magistrate, a Joint Magistrate, an Assistant, and an uncovenanted Deputy Collector. The whole amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District in 1876 was £165,409. In 1882–83, the imperial revenue of the District amounted to £137,874, of which £130,834 was derived from the land-tax. In the same year the regular and municipal police amounted to 482 men, and the cost of their maintenance to £5487, of which £4987 was defrayed from provincial funds, and the remainder from other sources. These figures give an average of 1 policeman to every 3·4 square miles and every 1419 of the population. The expenditure upon the force is equal to an average of £3, 7s. 2½d. per square mile and 1¾d. per inhabitant. The regular police were supplemented by 1869 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), maintained at a cost of £6764. During 1882, the Fatehpur jail contained a daily average of 311 prisoners, of whom 293 were males and 18 females. The District contains 22 post-offices, of which 14 are imperial and 8 local. The Government has no telegraph station in Fatehpur, but there is a railway telegraph office at each station on the East Indian line. Education was carried on in this District in 1882–83 by 107 Government inspected schools, with 3845 scholars. Six of the schools are for girls. There are, however, several private schools uninspected by the educational officers; and the Census Report of 1881 returned 6082 boys and 121 girls as under instruction, besides 19,443 males and 155 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. For fiscal and administrative purposes, Fatehpur is subdivided into 6 *tahsíls*, 13 *parganás*, and 20 police circles (*thánás*). The District contains only one municipality—Fatehpur town.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Fatehpur is that of an ordinary Doáb District; but from its easterly position, the west winds do not reach it with such force in the hot weather as they display at Agra and the adjoining towns. The surface is somewhat marshy, and the numerous shallow lakes (*jhíls*) render the atmosphere damper than that of the Upper Doáb. The humidity of the climate makes it rather

feverish, but the natives do not consider it unhealthy, especially when compared with the malarious flats and valleys of Bundelkhand to the south. Europeans enjoy moderate health; and the once notorious head-quarters at Fatehpur have now been rendered safe by the drainage of a large swamp, which formerly stretched to the west of the station. During the winter months the climate is most enjoyable, but towards the end of March the weather gets rapidly hotter, and in June the thermometer often remains at 96° or 98° F. day and night. The maximum rainfall was 53·5 inches in 1870, and the minimum was 16·3 inches in 1864. The slight rainfall of the latter year was, however, so evenly distributed, that drought was not felt so severely as in 1868, when 18·6 inches fell, but so irregularly as to cause a partial famine during the following winter. The average annual rainfall for a period of 33 years ending 1881 was 29·99 inches. The rainfall in 1881 was 39·40 inches, or 9·41 inches above the average. The total number of deaths recorded in 1882 was 28,178, or 41·35 per thousand of the population. The mean ratio of recorded deaths per thousand during the previous five years was 33·15 per thousand. There is one charitable dispensary in the District, at Fatehpur town; in 1882–83 it afforded relief to a total number of 5792 patients. [For further information regarding Fatehpur, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. viii. (Government Press, Allahábád, 1884). Also *Final Settlement Report of the Fatehpur District*, by A. B. Patteson, Esq., C.S.; *Report on the Census of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the *Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* from 1880 to 1883.]

Fatehpur. — *Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 357 square miles, of which 170 were cultivated in 1881, 77 cultivable, and 103 square miles waste. Population (1881) 177,596, namely, males 90,959, and females 86,637. Number of villages, 368. Land revenue, £28,717; total Government revenue, £33,863; rental paid by cultivators, £50,382.

Fatehpur.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; lies in lat. 25° 55′ 18″ N., long. 80° 52″ E., on the road from Allahábád to Cawnpur, 70 miles north-west of the former and 50 miles south-east of the latter. Population (1881) 21,328, namely, Hindus, 11,896; Muhammadans, 9356; and 76 Christians and 'others;' area of town site, 761 acres. Municipal income in 1882–83, £1168, of which £1024 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0⅞d. per head of municipal population. The town lays claim to considerable antiquity, and Bábar mentions it in his memoirs. The tomb of Nawáb Bakar Alí Khán, minister of the Oudh Nawábs at the end of the last century, forms the chief architectural ornament of the principal street. The Jamá Masjíd,

or great mosque, and the mosque of Hákím Abdul Hasan of Kora, also possess considerable interest. For the Mutiny narrative, see FATEHPUR DISTRICT. Station on the East Indian Railway main line. Telegraph office, District jail, administrative offices, charitable dispensary, high school. Trade in hides, soap, and grain. The only industry peculiar to the town, and that an unimportant one, is the manufacture of whips. Two vernacular newspapers are published here.

Fatehpur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bara Banki District, Oudh; lying between 26° 58′ and 27° 21′ N. lat., and between 80° 58′ and 81° 36′ E. long; bounded on the north by Mahmudábád *tahsíl* of Sítápur, on the east by Hisámpur *tahsíl* of Bahráich, on the south by Bara Banki *tahsíl*, and on the west by Malihábád *tahsíl* of Lucknow. Population, according to the Census of 1881—Hindus, 240,443; Muhammadans, 48,951; Jains, 241; 'others,' 8: total, 289,643. Number of villages, 676. The *tahsíl* comprises the 6 *parganás* of Fatehpur, Kursi, Muhammadpur, Bhitauli, Rámnagar, and Bádo Sarái. It contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court and 4 police circles (*thánás*).

Fatehpur.—*Parganá* in Fatehpur *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh. The original seat of the Khánzáda family, to which the great *talúkdárs* of Mahmudábád, Bhatwámau, and Bilahrá belong; the Shaikhzádas of Fatehpur are connections of the family of the same name, once so powerful in Lucknow. The *parganá* is picturesquely situated on the high lands above the Gogra (Ghagrá), between Dewa on the north and Mahmudábád on the south. Area, 154 square miles, or 98,352 acres, of which 65,358 acres are cultivated and 13,186 are cultivable waste. Government land revenue, £12,904; average incidence, 3s. 11⅓d. per acre of cultivated, or 3s. 3½d. per acre of assessed area. Population (1881) 92,969, namely, 48,524 males and 44,445 females. Average density of population, 609 persons per square mile.

Fatehpur.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; 15 miles north-north-east of the head-quarters town, at the junction of the Daryábád, Rámnagar, Bara Banki, and Sítápur roads. Lat. 27° 10′ 15″ N., long. 81° 15′ 5″ E. A place of considerable importance during the days of Mughal supremacy. Many large Muhammadan buildings exist, but all in a state of decay. The principal of these is an *imámbárá*, said to have been built by Maulvi Karámat Alí, an officer of high rank at the court of Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, but now only used during the *muharram* festival. There is also an old *masjid*, said to have been built in the time of Akbar; the present owner of the ground attached to it holds under a *sanad* or deed of gift, purporting to have been granted by Akbar himself. There are also many Hindu temples. Besides a well-attended daily *bázár*, a special bi-weekly market is also held, the principal trade being in grain brought from the trans-Gogra tract, and in English cloth. Coarse country cloth is manufactured by a

numerous colony of weavers. Police station, revenue court, and well-attended Anglo-vernacular school.

Fatehpur.—Village in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 38′ N., and long. 78° 34′ E., on the outer slope of the low limestone hills which shut in the Denwa valley, and upon the road from Bánkherí to Pachmarhi. A line of semi-independent Gond Rájás held the surrounding country from the days of the Mandlá dynasty; and its present representatives still live at Fatehpur, and hold large estates in the neighbourhood. Tántia Topí passed this way to the Sátpura Hills in 1858.

Fatehpur. — Village in Hatta *tahsíl*, Damoh District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2276, namely, Hindus, 2108; Muhammadans, 120; and Jains, 48.

Fatehpur.—Town in Shaikhawáti District, Jaipur State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 14,731, namely, Hindus, 10,561; Muhammadans, 3927; and 'unspecified,' 243. Situated 145 miles north-west from Jaipur. The town is fortified and belongs to the chiefship of Síkar. Post-office.

Fatehpur Chaurási.—*Parganá* in Safipur *tahsíl*, Unáo District, Oudh, lying along the banks of the Ganges, south of Bángarmau, and north of Safipur *parganá;* colonized about 250 years ago by Janwár Rájputs, who ousted the aboriginal Thatheras. The last chief, who held the whole *parganá* as his estate, rebelled in the Mutiny of 1857. He seized the English fugitives who were escaping by boat from Fatehgarh, and delivered them up to the Nána, by whom they were massacred on the Cawnpur parade. He died from the effects of a wound received in an attack on Unáo; one of his sons was hanged, and the other fled. The family estates were confiscated and given to strangers. The *parganá* possesses varied scenery, being dotted with picturesque groves, and intersected by channels leading to the Ganges. Indian corn of the best description, and barley of a fair quality, are the principal crops. Area, 90 square miles, of which 49 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £5418, or an average assessment of 1s. 10¾d. per acre. Land is held under the different tenures as follows: — *Tálukdárí*, 25,966 acres; *zamíndárí*, 25,806 acres; *pattidárí*, 5442 acres; and Government estates, 308 acres. Population (1881) 33,087, namely, males 17,853, and females 15,234.

Fatehpur Chaurási.—Town in Safipur *tahsíl*, Unáo District, Oudh; 6 miles west of Safipur, and 25 north-west of the head-quarters town. Said to have been held successively by the Thatheras, a colony of Sayyid emigrants, and the Janwárs, each of whom ousted the previous holders by force. The estates of the last holder were confiscated for rebellion in 1857. Population (1881) 2948, namely, Hindus, 2619; and Muhammadans, 329. Six Hindu temples. Bi-weekly *bázár*, and small

annual fair on the occasion of the *Dasahara* festival. Post-office, registration office, and village school.

Fatehpur Síkri.—*Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, (also known as *tahsíl* Kiráoli), lying in the western or trans-Jumna portion of the District. Area, 272 square miles, of which 189 square miles are cultivated, 62 square miles cultivable, and 21 square miles waste. Land revenue, £29,789; total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses, £33,423; rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £38,349. Population (1881) 114,678, namely, males 61,596, and females 53,082. Hindus numbered 101,861; Muhammadans, 11,989; Jains, 823; and 'others,' 5. Number of towns and villages, 171. The *tahsíl* is watered by the Utangan river in the south, and by the Kharí *nadí* which flows through its centre. In the east the country is level, resembling the adjoining tract in the Agra *tahsíl*. In the western half, however, there are hills, the most important being the range on which the town of Fatehpur Síkri is situated, running across the valley between the Utangan and Kharí *nadí* in a north-easterly direction. A much shorter and lower range runs parallel to this on the north side of the Kharí *nadí*; both ranges consist of red sandstone. The Muttra and Agra road crosses the north-east of the *tahsíl*, but the most important road is the one from Agra, through the centre of the *tahsíl* to Kiráoli, the head-quarters, and to Fatehpur Síkri, up to which point it is metalled. Thence it continues westwards, and is known as the Nasírábád road. This line of communication is connected by numerous village roads with all parts of the *tahsíl*, which is thus brought into close connection with Agra city, distant only 10 miles from its eastern border. The Rájputána State Railway runs through the northern half of the *tahsíl*, within 4 miles of Kiráoli; and at Achhnera the branch line to Muttra strikes off. The Agra Canal passes through the north of the *tahsíl*, and three distributaries irrigate the tract to the north of the Kharí *nadí*. The *tahsíl* or Sub-division contains 1 criminal court, with 4 police stations; strength of regular police, 54 men.

Fatehpur Síkri.—Town, municipality, and a former capital of the Mughal Empire; situated in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, 23 miles west of Agra, and 10 miles south-west of Kiráoli. Lat. 27° 5′ 35″ N., long. 77° 42′ 18″ E. Population (1881) 6243, namely, Hindus, 3536; Muhammadans, 2706; and 1 Christian. Municipal income (1882–83), £426, of which £411 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1d. per head (7466) of municipal population. Founded by the Emperor Akbar in 1570 with a view to its establishment as the permanent seat of the Mughal court; and enriched by magnificent architectural works in the time of Akbar and Jahángír; but abandoned within fifty years of its foundation, in

favour of Delhi. It chiefly consists of a vast expanse of ruins, enclosed by a high stone wall, some 5 miles in circuit. The great mosque is approached by a magnificent gateway, known as the Buland Darwáza, which surmounts a splendid flight of steps, and gives access to the Dargah or sacred quadrangle, a courtyard some 500 feet square, surrounded by a lofty cloister and a range of cells for Fakírs or pilgrims. The quadrangle contains a large mosque with three handsome domes of white marble, besides the tomb of Shaikh Salím Chishti, a Musalmán ascetic, through whose intercession Akbar obtained an heir in the person of Prince Salím, afterwards known as the Emperor Jahángír. The tomb consists of an elaborately-carved shrine in white marble, enclosing a sarcophagus within a screen of lattice-work, inlaid with mother-of-pearl. North of the Dargah stand the houses of Abúl Fazl and his brother Fáizí, now used as a boys' school. Eastward is the principal palace, containing the apartments of Akbar's chief wife. It consists of a spacious courtyard, surrounded by a continuous gallery, from which rise rows of buildings on the north and south, roofed with slabs of blue enamel. A lofty and richly-carved gate gives access to a terrace paved with sandstone flags, and formerly enclosed by a colonnade. On this terrace stand, among other noble buildings, the so-called houses of Bírbal and of the 'Christian lady.' Bírbal's palace, which modern antiquaries assign with greater probability to his daughter, is noticeable for its massive materials and the lavish minuteness of its detail. The 'Christian lady's house' belonged, according to tradition, to Bíbí Mariam, a Portuguese wife of Akbar. Some of the paintings are supposed to represent Christian scenes, but the Musalmáns have nearly obliterated all traces of these offensive pictures. Great doubts, however, have been cast upon the traditions respecting the 'Christian lady,' who was probably a Hindu princess, the mother of Jahángír. Among the other architectural masterpieces, the Diwán-i-Khás and the Diwán-i-ám, or Council Chamber and Hall of Judgment, especially attract the attention of visitors. The Elephant Gate contains two massive figures of the animals from which it derives its name; but their heads were removed by the Muhammadan bigotry of Aurangzeb. Close by towers the Hiran Minár, a pile some 70 feet in height, covered with enamelled imitations of elephants' tusks, which are commonly believed by the populace to consist of solid ivory. Numerous other splendid buildings, dating back in every case to the reign of Akbar, or of his son Jahángír, stand in various parts of the city. Fatehpur Síkri has little modern importance, and its architectural remains, which attract many tourists from Agra, are its chief claim to attention. During the Mutiny of 1857 it was occupied by the Nímach (Neemuch) and Nasírábád (Nusseerabad) rebels on the 2nd of July, and the British authorities did not permanently recover the place until November.

The modern town of Fatehpur lies to the south-west of the ruins and palaces, and the village of Síkri to the north-east, but both are within the old boundary wall built by Akbar, which had a circumference of about 7 miles. The public buildings comprise a police station, post-office, charitable dispensary, and Anglo-vernacular school. There is also a *dák* bungalow, in a part of the old palace, formerly Akbar's record office; while other portions of the palace buildings are available for occupation by visitors on permission given by the Collector. Fatehpur Síkri is mentioned in the *Ain-í-Akbarí* as among the principal places in the Mughal Empire in 1596, although it had then ceased for ten years to be the capital, and as celebrated for its hair-weaving, silk-spinning, and stone-carving, which 'clever workmen chisel so skilfully as no turner could do with wood.' Its grand *sarái* was the rendezvous of merchants from all the then known parts of the globe, European countries being largely represented. But at the present day, the weaving of a few coarse and cheap cotton carpets, and the fashioning of rude millstones, are the only manufactures of the place, while its trade has dwindled down into the import of a few insignificant items, mainly for local consumption.

Fatwá (*Fatúhá*).—Town in Patná District, Bengal, and station on the East Indian Railway, 8 miles from Patná city, and 324 from Calcutta. Situated in lat. 25° 30′ 25″ N., and long. 85° 21′ E., at the junction of the Púnpún with the Ganges, and supported in a great measure by river traffic. Fatwá was described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in 1812, as a large country town, which might contain 2000 houses and 12,000 people, with a considerable trade and manufacture of cloth. Population (1881) 10,919, namely, Hindus, 9718; and Muhammadans, 1201. Area of town site, 588 acres. Its position on the railway and on the Ganges naturally give it commercial importance. Fatwá is also a place of considerable sanctity. Five festivals are held here annually, when large numbers of pilgrims bathe in the sacred river. At the *Bárni Dawádasí*, or festival commemorating an incarnation of Vishnu in the form of a dwarf, from 10,000 to 12,000 persons bathe at the junction of the Púnpún with the Ganges.

Fázilka.—*Tahsíl* of Sirsa District, Punjab, lying along the bank of the river Sutlej (Satlaj). Area, 1196 square miles. Population (1881) 87,894, namely, males 48,345, and females 39,549. Muhammadans numbered 41,781; Hindus, 37,085; Sikhs, 8974; 'others,' 54. The tract is naturally divided into the low alluvial tract along the Sutlej, and the high land to the east, the latter being by far the larger of the two. Steps are being taken to re-open the Pádi-nála, an old inundation canal which once watered the lowlands; while a branch of the Sirhind Canal has been brought into the uplands, and was opened in 1882. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £9552. The administrative staff consists of an

extra-Assistant Commissioner and a *tahsíldár*, presiding over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of *thánás* or police circles, 3; strength of regular police, 81 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 187.

Fázilka.—Town and municipality in Sirsa District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Fázilka *tahsíl*. Lat. 30° 24′ 57″ N., long. 74° 4′ 10″ E. Situated on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Population (1881) 6851, namely, Hindus, 4917; Muhammadans, 1874; Sikhs, 44; and Jains, 16; number of houses, 1119. A third-class municipality. Municipal income in 1882-83, £1969; expenditure, £1484. Founded about 1846 by Mr. Oliver on the ruins of a deserted village, named after a Wattu chief, Fázil, and greatly developed by his exertions. Great entrepôt for the produce of the neighbourhood, and of the western portion of Patiála, exported by boats down the Sutlej towards Múltán (Mooltan) and Karáchi (Kurrachee). Fázilka is the most thriving and progressive town in this part of the Punjab. Considerable trade with Bháwalpur and Bíkaner, chiefly in grain and wool. The Indus Valley State Railway has established a depôt on the river bank, five miles from the town, to which steamers ply in the rainy season. It is proposed to connect Fázilka with the Firozpur-Rewári Railway, by a branch either at Bhatinda or Mukatsar. Station of an extra-Assistant Commissioner, court-house, *tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, staging bungalow, *sarái*.

Ferokh (*Farrukhábád*, 'Fortunate city,' *Paramukka*).—The town which Tipú Sultán in 1789 designed to be the capital of Malabár, and whither in that year he removed the inhabitants of Calicut. In the following year, however, it was captured by the British, and hardly a vestige now remains of the town. The site lies a few miles from Beypur (Beypore), in Malabár District, Madras Presidency.

Ferozábád.—*Tahsíl* and town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* FIROZABAD.

Ferozábád.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh.—*See* FIROZABAD.

Ferozepur.—District, *tahsíl*, and town, Punjab.—*See* FIROZPUR.

Ferozesháh. — Battle-field in Firozpur District, Punjab. — *See* FIROZSHAH.

Fingeswar.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in the Central Provinces.—*See* PHINGESWAR.

Firinghi Bázár.—Village in Dacca District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 33′ N., and long. 90° 33′ E., upon a branch of the river Ichámatí. Noted as the first Portuguese settlement in the District, formed about 1663, during the Governorship of Shaistá Khán. These Portuguese were mainly soldiers who had deserted from the service of the Rájá of Arakan to that of Husain Beg, the Mughal general besieging Chittagong, which at that time was Arakanese territory. Firinghi Bázár was once of considerable size, but its prosperity has

declined since the decay of the Dacca trade, and it is now an insignificant village.

Firingípet (*Parangipetái*).—Town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* PORTO NOVO.

Firozábád. — *Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the northern or Doáb bank of the river Jumna (Jamuná). Population (1881) 108,521, namely, males 59,287, and females 49,234. Hindus numbered 97,284; Muhammadans, 8826; Jains, 2407; 'others,' 4. Number of villages, 285. Area, 203 square miles, of which 140 square miles are cultivated, 16 square miles cultivable, and 47 square miles barren. Land revenue, £22,450; total Government revenue, including rates and cesses, £25,144; rental paid by cultivators, £42,307. With the exception of the extensive ravines which skirt the Jumna along the whole of its course in the *tahsíl*, there are no remarkable physical features varying the general aspect of the country, which is that of a level cultivated plain. These ravines occupy an area of about 34 square miles, as a rule bare and unproductive, although large quantities of *munj* grass grow in some tracts, and in others there is a considerable growth of low jungle wood. Of the cultivated area, 84 per cent. is returned as irrigated; and of this, 96 per cent. derives its irrigation from wells, the average irrigated area per well being 6·3 acres. Canal irrigation is confined to a very limited tract. The *tahsíl* is traversed by the East Indian Railway, with a station at Firozábád town; by a branch of the Grand Trunk Road parallel to the railway; two second-class roads, and several third-class roads. It contains 2 criminal courts, with 4 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 331.

Firozábád.—Town and municipality in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Firozábád *tahsíl*. Lies in lat. 27° 8′ 37″ N., and long. 78° 25′ 56″ E., on the route from Muttra (Mathura) to Etáwah; distant from Agra 24 miles east. Population (1881) 16,023, namely, Hindus, 10,770; Muhammadans, 4473; Jains, 777; and 'others,' 3; area of town site, 766 acres. Municipal income (1882–83), £789, of which £702 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 10½d. per head. Contains numerous ruins of handsome buildings, and appears to have been in former times an important centre. It is now a small trading town, with a considerable agricultural population. Station on the East Indian Railway main line, 817 miles from Calcutta. Telegraph office, charitable dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, police station, post-office, encamping-ground, and rest-house.

Firozábád.—*Parganá* in Nighásan *tahsíl*, Kheri District, Oudh, lying between the Cháuka, Kauriála, and Dahawár rivers. The *par-*

ganá receives its name from the Emperor Firoz Sháh, with whom it was a favourite hunting-ground. In olden times it belonged in great part to the Bisens; but they were expelled, after repeated conflicts, by the Jangres, who in their turn were ousted in 1776, and their Rájá killed. About sixteen years afterwards, a relative of the deceased chief was granted a few patches of rent-free ground, which he gradually increased till in forty years he had obtained possession of the whole northern portion of the *parganá*, which now forms the estate of Isánagar, and is still in the possession of the family. The entire south of the *parganá* also forms a single estate, which has grown out of five villages granted to a Raikwár Kshattriya chief, who extended his possessions at the expense of his neighbours. The *parganá* is of alluvial formation, but is now well raised, and but little of it is exposed to flood. Soil, principally loam, but towards the centre a good deal of clay. Area, 163 square miles, of which 104 are under cultivation. Population (1881), Hindus, 48,255; and Muhammadans, 6751: total, 55,006. The Lodhís, who form 16 per cent. of the population, are the most numerous caste; next come Ahírs (11 per cent.), and Bráhmans (10 per cent.). The 91 villages constituting the *parganá* are held entirely by the Jangre and Raikwár *tálukdárs* above mentioned, who divide the *parganá* in about equal proportions.

Firozpur.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 8′ and 31° 11′ N. lat., and between 74° 3′ 30″ and 75° 27′ E. long. Firozpur forms the southern District of the Lahore Division. It is bounded on the north-east by the river Sutlej (Satlaj), which separates it from Jalandhar (Jullundur); on the north-west by the united stream of the Sutlej and Beas (Biás), which divides it from Lahore; on the east and south-east by Ludhiána District, and the Native States of Farídkot, Patiála, and Nábha, which last stretch into the District so as almost to divide it into two parts; and on the south-west by Sirsa District. Area, 2752 square miles; population (1881) 650,519. It stands seventeenth in order of area, and eleventh in order of population among the thirty-two Districts of the Punjab. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of FIROZPUR, on the southern bank of the Sutlej.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Firozpur is one unbroken plain, comprising within its limits every variety of soil, from the most fertile to the most barren, to be found in the eastern half of the Punjab. The action of the Sutlej has played a chief part in determining its geographical features. Striking the District at its north-eastern corner, the great river trends northwards to its junction with the Beas (Biás), after which the united channel turns sharply toward the south-west, until it passes beyond the borders of Firozpur. The angular segment thus circumscribed has for its base an ancient bed of the river, known

as the Sukhar Nái, which winds in a tortuous course east and west across the District, and joins the modern channel near the confines of Sirsa. The abrupt cliff which rises above its right bank forms the most marked element in the physical aspect of the country. Within the memory of the present generation, water is said to have flowed in its bed, while groves of *shísham* trees lined the banks; but no traces of timber now remain. Evidence, however, still exists of yet another and more ancient change of course in the shifting waters of the Sutlej. The original bank, locally known as the *dánda*, crosses the south-western corner of the District 35 miles east of the present stream. It can be traced distinctly as far as the battle-field of Múdkí (Moodkee), and thence at intervals to the Sutlej, 15 miles farther to the north. The poorest portion of Firozpur lies to the west of the *dánda*, beyond the fertilizing influence of the modern river. The soil consists of hard and hopelessly sterile sand, while the water obtained from wells is largely impregnated with salt, and lies at a depth of 180 feet below the surface. East of the *dánda*, however, excellent agricultural land stretches over the upland tract or *rohi;* and the wells yield sweet and drinkable water, sufficiently close to the surface for purposes of irrigation. The *bhét* or low-lying tract between the great river and the high bank of the Sukhar Nái, has a maximum width of 14 miles opposite the confluence of the Beas (Biás) and the Sutlej. Much of its soil consists of a poor and sandy loam, but great facilities exist for artificial water-supply; while the annual inundations render the border fringe extremely productive, through the deposit of a rich black silt. The northern portion of the District comprises a fairly-wooded region, though most of the trees have been planted in recent years; but the southern half is still extremely bare of shade. When Firozpur first came under British rule, our authorities almost despaired of arboriculture in so dry a tract; yet the constant efforts of the settlement officers, who set apart a piece of ground as a plantation in every village, have at length been crowned with success, and the neighbourhood of the river, at least, now presents a pleasing variety of *siris*, *farásh*, and *pípal* trees. Plantations have also been established round every police station throughout the District, forming agreeable breaks in the monotony of the levels and cultivated plain. The only animals of prey found in considerable numbers in Firozpur are wolves, which, although not of large size, are fierce and mischievous. Jackals and foxes are few in number. Antelope still exist in tolerable abundance, but they are much shot down. Small game includes hares, black and grey partridges, and sand-grouse in abundance; and in the cold weather, *kulang* (demoiselle crane), wild geese and duck on and near the river. Quail and small birds are trapped by means of decoys and nets. *Rohu* and *chilka* fish are caught

in the Sutlej, but there are no fisheries of importance in the District.

History.—Tradition, supported by remains of antiquity, assigns a former period of great prosperity to a region which now forms the dreariest waste in the District of Firozpur. The neighbourhood of the dry *dánda* channel, at present almost uninhabited, bears witness, by its deserted sites and choked-up wells, to the existence of a numerous agricultural population along its now desolate banks. Though no date can be absolutely determined for this epoch of prosperity, there are good grounds for the belief that the Sutlej still flowed east of Firozpur in the time of Akbar; for the famous Mughal Domesday-Book, known as the *Ain-í-Akbarí*, describes the town as the capital of a large district attached to the western Province of Múltán (Mooltan), and not to that of Sirhind, as would probably have been the case had the river already taken its modern course. The shifting of the river, from which the tract derived its fertility, and the ravages of war, were doubtless the chief causes of its decline, which probably commenced before the end of the 16th century. The country certainly presented the appearance of a desert when, about two centuries ago, the Dogras, a tribe who claim to rank as Chauhán Rájputs, settled near Pákpattan, and gradually spread up the Sutlej valley. They found none to oppose them, as the scattered Bhatti population who occupied the soil retired before the new colonists. At length, in 1740, according to tradition, they reached Firozpur, which became thenceforth the capital of the tribe. The imperial authority was represented by an officer stationed at Kasúr, to the west of the Sutlej, bearing the title of the 'Faujdár of the Lakka Jungle.' About the same time, a tide of Ját immigration appears to have set in from the direction of Ambála (Umballa) and Sirhind; and Sikh chieftains began to carve out petty principalities for themselves in the western portion of the District. In 1763, the Bhangi confederacy, one of the great Sikh sections, attacked and conquered Firozpur under their famous leader, Gujar Singh, who made over the newly-acquired territory to his nephew, Gurbakhsh Singh. The young Sikh chieftain rebuilt the fort and consolidated his power on the Sutlej, but spent most of his time in other portions of the Province. In 1792 he seems to have divided his estates with his family, when Firozpur fell to Dhanna Singh, his second son. The little State, encircled by enemies, proved almost too difficult a realm for its new ruler, who lost his territories piece by piece, but still retained possession of Firozpur itself, when Ranjít Singh crossed the Sutlej in 1808, and threatened to absorb all the minor principalities which lay between his domain and the British frontier. But the English Government, established at Delhi since 1803, intervened with an offer of protection to all the cis-Sutlej States; and Dhanna Singh gladly availed himself of the promised aid,

being one of the first chieftains who accepted British protection and control. Ranjít Singh at once ceased to interfere with the minor States when the assistance of the British arms lay ready to support their rights; and Dhanna Singh retained the remnant of his dominions unmolested, until his death in 1818. He left no sons, and his widow succeeded to his principality during her lifetime; but on her death in 1835, the territory escheated to the British Government, under the conditions of the arrangement effected in 1809. The political importance of Firozpur had been already recognised, and an officer was at once deputed to take possession of the new post. After the boundary had been carefully determined, the District was made over for a while to a native official; but it soon became desirable to make Firozpur the permanent seat of a European Political Officer. In 1839, Sir Henry (then Captain) Lawrence took charge of the station, which formed at that time the advanced outpost of British India in the direction of the Sikh power. Early accounts represent the country as a dreary and desert plain, where rain seldom fell, and dust-storms never ceased. The energy of Captain Lawrence, however, combined with the unwonted security under British rule, soon attracted new settlers to this hitherto desolate region. Cultivation rapidly increased, trees began to fringe the waterside, trade collected round the local centres, and Firozpur, which in 1835 was a deserted village, had in 1841 a population of nearly 5000 persons. Four years later, the first Sikh war broke out. The enemy crossed the Sutlej opposite Firozpur on the 16th December 1845; and the battles of Múdkí (Moodkee), Firozsháh, Alíwál, and Sobráon—all of them within the limits of the present District—followed one another in rapid succession. Broken by their defeats, the Sikhs once more retired across the boundary river, pursued by the British army, which dictated the terms of peace beneath the walls of Lahore. The whole cis-Sutlej possessions of the Punjab kingdom passed into the hands of the East India Company, and the little principality of Firozpur became at once the nucleus for an important British District. The existing area was increased by subsequent additions, the last of which took place in 1864. Since the successful close of the first Sikh campaign, the peace of the District has never been broken, except during the Mutiny of 1857. In May of that year, one of the two Native infantry regiments stationed at Firozpur broke out into revolt, and, in spite of a British regiment and some European artillery, plundered and destroyed the buildings of the cantonment. The arsenal and magazine, however, which gave the station its principal importance, were saved without loss of life to the European garrison. The mutineers were subsequently dispersed.

Population.—The earliest Census of Firozpur District was taken in 1854, and showed a total population of 475,624 persons. The

area then differed but little from that of the present time. A second enumeration, undertaken in January 1868, disclosed a total of 549,614 persons, over the area comprising the present District. In 1881, the Census returned the population at 650,519, showing a further increase of 100,905, or 18·4 per cent., in the thirteen years since 1868. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of the District, 2752 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1189; number of houses, 89,416, of which 74,429 are occupied and 14,987 unoccupied. Total population, 650,519, namely, males 357,319, and females 293,200; proportion of males in total population, 54·9 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, the District is mainly noticeable for the comparatively large proportion of its Sikh inhabitants, who number 168,816, or 25·9 per cent. of the total. The Muhammadans were returned at 310,552, or 47·7 per cent.; the Hindus at 168,645, or 25·9 per cent. Jains numbered 811; Christians, 1686; and Pársís, 9. The agricultural population amounted to 368,358 persons, of whom 109,533 were male agriculturists above the age of 15 years. As regards ethnical divisions and caste distinctions, the Hindus and Sikhs comprised 12,076 Bráhmans, 3595 Rájputs, 9174 Kshattriyas, 11,335 Baniyás, 13,306 Aroras, and 159,941 Játs; while the Musalmán element included 35,943 Rájputs, 26,635 Játs, 11,975 Gújars, 6806 Shaikhs, 3134 Sayyids, 1103 Mughals, 3122 Patháns, and 2486 Khwájás. The Muhammadans chiefly inhabit the low-lying lands (*bhét*) along the banks of the Sutlej. The Dogras and Bhattis form the leading Rájput tribes, and bear the reputation of being lazy and thriftless. They also contribute to swell the returns of crime far beyond their fair numerical proportion. On the other hand, they hold a high social position in the District. The Sikh and Hindu Játs, fine specimens of their hardy and industrious race, apply their energy to cultivation in the upland plateau of the *rohi*. The Rájás of the neighbouring States of Patiála, Jhind, and Nábha, belong to the Barár sub-division of the Ját tribe. The population lies scattered very unevenly over the various portions of the District. In some parts of the low-lying Sutlej belt, a message can be passed from village to village, according to popular belief, by the human voice; while in the extreme south, a horseman at full speed could not pass from one inhabited spot to another within an hour. The District contains 5 municipalities — namely, FIROZPUR, population (1881) 20,870, exclusive of cantonment; MUKTSAR, 3125; DHARMKOT, 6007; ZIRA, 3492; MAKHU, 1658. The only other towns in the District are MOGA, population 6430; and MAHRAJ, 5758. Firozpur, the head-quarters station, is also important as a great military cantonment, and the chief arsenal of the Punjab. Population of cantonment (1881) 18,700. Of the 1189 towns and villages within the District, 370 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 457 had

from two to five hundred; 213 from five hundred to a thousand; 103 from one to two thousand; 30 from two to three thousand; 12 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; and 1 upwards of ten thousand. Classified according to occupation, the Census Report divides the adult male population into the following seven groups:—Class (1) Professional, 9669; (2) domestic, 18,404; (3) commercial, 2714; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 111,380; (5) manufacturing and industrial, 38,906; (6) indefinite and non-productive, 15,609; (7) unspecified, 21,237.

Condition of the People.—The general prosperity of the District is great; the price of land is rising, and the income of the population, both agricultural and commercial, is reported to be steadily increasing. Owing to the prevalence of the coparcenary system, it is difficult to fix the ordinary income of an agriculturist. One, however, whose share amounts to 9 acres of ordinary land is certainly in comfortable circumstances, and able to live quite as well as a small shopkeeper in a town. His average expenses in ordinary times may be put down at from 5s. to 6s. a month. But on occasions of religious or social ceremonies, such as betrothals, marriages, funerals, and other gatherings, the peasantry are obliged by custom to incur extravagant expenses, which plunge them into debt, and sometimes result in utter ruin. Every peasant has his account with the village money-lender, but only a small proportion of the agricultural population are hopelessly involved. The usual rate of interest for cash loans is about 24 per cent., but 37½ per cent. is a common rate, and occasionally as much as 75 per cent. is taken. In loans of grain, the interest charged is higher than in money transactions; and the money-lender almost always makes a large extra profit by crediting payments in kind at a much lower rate than that at which he calculates the loan. Where ornaments are pledged, 12 per cent. is the current rate of interest; and in mortgages of land, one-fourth of the produce is usually taken in lieu of interest.

Agriculture.—According to the returns quoted in the Administration Report for 1882–83, the District contained in 1878–79 a total cultivated area of 1,343,922 acres; of which 231,162 were irrigated from private works, leaving 1,112,760 acres unsupplied with water by artificial means. The remainder comprised 276,356 acres of cultivable waste, and 135,910 of barren land. It appears, therefore, that only 7·7 per cent. of the whole District consists of irreclaimably sterile soil, while 76·5 per cent. has already been brought under the plough. The staple crops include wheat for the *rabí* or spring harvest; and the two common millets, *joár* and *bájra*, for the *kharíf* or autumn harvest. Other important items are—barley, gram, tobacco, and oil-seeds for the *rabí;* and maize, cotton, pulses, and *tíl* for the *kharíf.*

The low-lying lands along the Sutlej also produce a small quantity of rice. The area under the various staples (including land bearing two crops) was returned as follows in 1882-83:—Wheat, 401,565 acres; *joár*, 219,717 acres; *bájra*, 62,830 acres; maize, 71,850 acres; barley, 139,397 acres; gram, 236,624 acres; other pulses, 142,357 acres; rice, 3109 acres; tobacco, 1789 acres; cotton, 12,877 acres; hemp, 3879 acres; oil-seeds, 52,801 acres; vegetables, 5285 acres; sugar-cane, 2553 acres. Irrigation is supplied from wells and canals. A single well in the *bhét* tract will water from 20 to 40 acres; in the *rohi*, from 12 to 20 acres. All of them are of very recent construction, and owe their origin to the native industry of the people, aided by the advice and encouragement of an energetic British official. In 1875-76, as many as 43,331 acres of land received irrigation in this manner for the first time. The whole southern portion of the District still lies exposed to the ravages of famine, water being found at too great a depth to permit the use of wells for agricultural purposes; but to this thirsty tract the Sirhind Canal, now (1883) completed, affords an abundant means of irrigation. The only manures used are village sweepings and ashes, and these are confined to the irrigated lands of the *bhét*. The agricultural stock in the District is approximately returned as under:—294,254 cows and bullocks, 2469 horses, 2246 ponies, 9076 donkeys, 79,101 sheep and goats, 57 pigs, 3741 camels, 10,014 carts, 75,141 ploughs, 201 boats. The tenures of land conform to the ordinary Punjab types—*zamíndári* being commonest among the Rájputs of the lowlands, while a partition of shares has usually taken place in the Ját communities of the interior. Tenant cultivators ordinarily pay their rents in kind, at rates which range from one-fourth to one-half of the gross produce. Money rates are paid only by occupancy tenants, who were permitted at the settlement of the land-tax to commute payment in kind for a cash percentage upon the revenue due from their holdings. Occasional agricultural labour is always paid in grain. Of a total area of 2744 square miles, 1995 square miles are assessed, at a Government revenue, including local rates and cesses on land, of £58,175. Rental paid by cultivators, £132,974. Cash wages in 1882-83 ranged from 3d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled labour, and from 6d. to 1s. 6d. for skilled labour. The prices-current of food-grains ruled as follows on the 1st January 1883:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; barley, 46 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 5d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 44 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 6d. per cwt.; gram, 42 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 8d. per cwt.; *joár*, 48 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 4d. per cwt.; and *bájra*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt. These prices are exceptionally low, and are due to two successive abundant harvests, which were common to the Punjab as well as to the whole of Northern India.

Natural Calamities. — Although the southern half of the District depends entirely upon the rainfall for its harvests, yet Firozpur has suffered comparatively little from famine. In 1869–70, the District not only supplied its own internal needs, but continued to export grain throughout the season of scarcity. Relief was required during several months, but principally for immigrants from Bíkaner (Bickaneer). On January 1st, 1870, wheat sold for 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.; and barley, for 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The staple export of the District consists of grain, for which the market of Firozpur forms the local centre. The enterprising Ját cultivators of the interior carry on trade upon their own account, conveying their produce on camels or in carts, not only to Firozpur itself, but also to Amritsar, and even to Lahore. In the Sutlej (Satlaj) belt, the village Baniyá acts as merchant and banker. Firozpur does a considerable trade with all the towns between the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Beas (Biás), while large consignments of wheat and cotton, collected from the District and the neighbouring Native States, are shipped down the Sutlej for Sukkur and Karáchí (Kurrachee). The exports to towns beyond the Punjab alone reached a value of £54,056 in 1871–72, but there are no statistics available for the general trade of the District. An important cattle fair takes place annually in the month of January at Muktsár, on the occasion of a great Sikh festival. The local manufactures are of the humblest description, being entirely confined to the supply of the neighbouring country. Coarse cloths and blankets are woven in the villages from home-grown cotton and wool. The chief road is that which connects Firozpur town with Lahore on the one side, and with the Punjab Railway at Ludhiána on the other; it is metalled throughout, and passable by wheeled vehicles at all seasons. Good lines also radiate from Firozpur to Jalandhar (Jullundur), Karnál, Patiála, Fázilka, and other neighbouring towns. The total length of communications in 1882–83 was returned as follows:—By water, 128 miles; by metalled road, 80 miles; by unmetalled road, 710 miles. A line of railway is now (1884) under construction, leaving the Rájputána State Railway at Rewárí, in Gurgáon District, and running, *viâ* Hissár and Sirsa Districts, to Firozpur. A line of telegraph connects the cantonment and arsenal of Firozpur with Ludhiána, and so with the other military centres of the Punjab.

Administration.—The ordinary head-quarters staff of the District consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant, and two extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides a District Superintendent and Assistant Superintendent of Police. For fiscal purposes the District is divided into the four Sub-divisions or *tahsíls* of Firozpur, Mogá, Muktsár, and Zirá, each being in charge of a *tahsíldár*, assisted by a *náib* or deputy.

Munsifs' courts are established at Firozpur, Mogá, and Zirá. In 1851–52, the total revenue derived from the District amounted to £44,587; in 1861–62, it had risen to £50,712; in 1875–76, to £62,386; and in 1882–83, to £75,816. This steady increase is mainly due to the growth of the land revenue, under the influence of extended irrigation and the impetus given to agricultural industry by a settled and peaceable Government; but part of it must also be attributed to the larger income derived from stamps. In 1851–52, the land-tax amounted to £36,044; by 1875–76, it had reached £50,953; and in 1882–83, to £51,489, or about two-thirds of the total revenue. The land settlement in force was effected between the years 1852–55, and expired in 1883. Besides the imperial revenue, a local income of about £9500 is realized by means of cesses for expenditure upon works of public utility within the District. In 1882, the regular police force numbered 556 men, including the municipal constabulary and cantonment police; being an average of 1 man to every 4·95 square miles and every 1169 of the population. This force is further supplemented by a rural body of 790 village watchmen or *chaukídárs*. The District jail and lock-up at Firozpur contained a total of 1323 prisoners in 1882–83, the average daily prison population being 320. Education has made but little way against the universal apathy of the inhabitants. In 1872–73, Government supported or aided 45 schools within the District, with 2569 pupils. In 1875–76, the number of inspected schools had risen to 53, and of pupils to 2755; while in 1881, although the number of Government and aided schools had risen to 61, the pupils had fallen to 2631. These figures show an average of 1 school to 45 square miles, and of 4·0 scholars for every thousand of the population. There are also a number of indigenous unaided schools in the District of a very elementary class, variously returned at 197 with 2126 pupils, and 287 with 2903 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 3342 boys and 181 girls as being under instruction, besides 15,138 males and 318 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The five municipal towns had in 1882–83 an aggregate income of £5092, being at the rate of 2s. 1d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The District enjoys a reputation for exceptional healthiness, owing principally to the dryness of its climate; but in September and October, fever and pleuro-pneumonia largely prevail. Small-pox also exists in an endemic form, but its ravages have been greatly reduced since the more general spread of vaccination. Guinea-worm is not uncommon in the south of the District, and is traceable to the water. The official returns for 1882 give the total number of deaths during the year at 14,225, being at the rate of 22 per thousand of the population. The District contains one civil hospital, at Firozpur,

which gave relief in 1882 to 10,462 persons, of whom 579 were in-patients. There is also a second-class dispensary at Zíra, and a third-class one at Muktsár, besides another at Mamdot, maintained by the Nawáb. The rainfall is capricious, and scanty even in the best years; but its quantity appears to have increased, while its regularity has greatly improved with the spread of cultivation and the growth of trees. The average annual rainfall at Firozpur for the thirty years ending 1881 was 22·72 inches; but that of the southern tract falls far short of the quantity in the northern lowlands. In 1881 the rainfall was 20·90 inches, or 1·82 inch below the average. No systematic thermometrical record has ever been maintained in the District. Private observations, however, show that in December and January the in-door temperature ranges between 40° and 70° F., whilst during June and July (with closed doors) its range in houses not artificially cooled is from 92° to 97°. [For further information regarding Firozpur, see the District article in the forthcoming *Punjab Gazetteer;* also *Report on the Revised Settlement of the District of Firozpur*, by E. L. Brandreth, Esq., C.S., April 1855; *Report on the Census of the Punjab*, 1881; and the *Administration and Departmental Reports of the Punjab* from 1880 to 1883.]

Firozpur.—*Tahsíl* of Firozpur District, Punjab, lying between 30° 44′ 15″ and 31° 7′ 15″ N. lat., and between 74° 27′ 30″ and 74° 59′ 30″ E. long. Area, 495 square miles. Population (1881) 153,168, namely, males 86,366, and females 66,802; persons per square mile, 309. Hindus numbered 34,334; Muhammadans, 101,963; Sikhs, 15,034; and 'others,' 1837. The revenue of the *tahsíl* in 1883 was £8970. The administrative staff consists of 1 Deputy Commissioner, 1 Judicial Assistant, 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 small cause court judge, 1 *tahsíldár*, 1 *munsif*, and 4 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 10 civil and 10 criminal courts, with 5 police stations; strength of regular police, 112 men, with 184 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Firozpur.—Town, military cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Firozpur District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 30° 56′ 42″ N., and long. 74° 38′ 24″ E., on the old high bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 3½ miles from the present bed of the river. The town was founded, according to tradition, in the time of Firoz Sháh, Emperor of Delhi, A.D. 1351–1387, but was in a declining state at the period of British annexation. Under a settled government, however, its growth has been rapid and steady, the population having increased five-fold since 1841. It is now the seat of a thriving commerce, due principally to the exertions of Sir H. Lawrence, who induced many native traders to settle in the city, and more lately to the enterprise of an English merchant, who has erected a powerful cotton-press in the vicinity. The main streets are wide and well paved, while a circular road which

girdles the wall is lined by the gardens of wealthy residents. The total population of Firozpur in 1881 (including the cantonment) was 39,570, namely, males 23,971, and females 15,599. Muhammadans numbered 17,609; Hindus, 19,004; Sikhs, 1207; Jains, 72; Christians and 'others,' 1678. The public buildings include the District court-house, treasury, post-office, police station, and staging bungalow, within the cantonments; the jail, town-hall, dispensary, school-house, and *sarái*, upon the road connecting the city with the military station; and the memorial church, in honour of those who fell in the Sutlej campaign of 1845-46, destroyed during the Mutiny, but since restored. Thriving trade in grain and other agricultural produce. For early history and events of 1857, see FIROZPUR DISTRICT. Municipal revenue in 1882-83, £4174, or 4s. per head of population (20,870) within municipal limits. The cantonments lie 2 miles south of the city; and the garrison, now much reduced, ordinarily consists of a regiment of British infantry, one of Native infantry, and two batteries of artillery. The cantonment population in 1881 numbered 18,700. The arsenal, to which the town owes its political importance, is by far the largest in the Punjab, and well stored with munitions of war.

Firozpur.—Southern *tahsíl* of Gurgáon District, Punjab; lying between 27° 39′ and 27° 59′ N. lat., and between 76° 56′ and 77° 9′ E. long. Area, 317 square miles. Population (1881) 114,340, namely, males 59,272, and females 55,068; average density, 361 persons per square mile. Muhammadans numbered 80,835; Hindus, 32,479; Sikhs, 12; and 'others,' 1014. The revenue of the *tahsíl* in 1883 was £23,296. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, who presides over the only civil and criminal court. Two police stations; strength of regular police, 58 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 264.

Firozpur.—Town and municipality in Gurgáon District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Firozpur *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 27° 46′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 59′ 30″ E., in a fertile valley on a small perennial stream, the Landoh, in the extreme south of the District. Said to have been founded by the Emperor Firoz Sháh, who placed a cantonment here for the subjugation of the neighbouring hill tribes. Annexed by the British Government in 1803, but granted in *jágír* to Ahmad Baksh Khán, whose son, Nawáb Shams-ud-dín Khán, was executed in 1836 for the murder of Mr. W. Fraser, Commissioner of Delhi. Since that period it has formed the head-quarters of a *tahsíl*. Population (1881) 6878, namely, Hindus, 3216; Muhammadans, 3111; Jains, 540; and Sikhs, 11. Number of occupied houses, 957. Thriving trade in country produce; exports of grain and cotton; imports of rice, sugar, and English piece-goods. *Tahsíli*, police station, school-house. The oldest part of the present town is rectangular in shape, and surrounded

by a high wall; but one half of the houses now lie outside the wall towards the east. The main *bázárs*, running at right angles to one another, are unusually good for a small town,—broad, well drained, neatly paved, and ornamented with trees. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £622, or 1s. 6d. per head of population (8235) within municipal limits.

Firozsháh.—Battle-field in Firozpur *tahsíl*, Firozpur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 53′ N., and long. 74° 49′ 45″ E., about 12 miles from the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Rendered famous by the attack made upon the formidably-entrenched Sikh camp, Dec. 21, 1845, by the British forces under Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge. After two days' severe fighting, the entrenchments were carried and the enemy completely routed, but not without heavy losses on the part of the conquerors. No trace of the earthworks now remains, but a monument erected upon the spot perpetuates the memory of the officers and men who fell in the engagement. The real name of the place, as called by the people, is Pharú Shahr, corrupted into the historical name Firozsháh.

Fort St. David.—South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* DAVID, FORT ST.

Fort St. George.—Citadel of Madras, and the name officially applied to the Government of the Presidency.—*See* MADRAS TOWN.

Fort Victoria (or BANKOT, under which name a brief notice has also been given).—Village and old fort at the mouth of the Savitri river, 73 miles south-east from Bombay, and 10 miles north by west of Suvarndrug. Lat. 17° 58′ 30″ N., long. 73° 5′ 10″ E. In the beginning of the last century, 'Bancoote' or Fort Victoria was a pirate nest of the Maráthá chief, Angria. It was captured along with Suvarndrug (Severndrug) in 1755, by an English squadron under Commander James, during the operations against the Angrian buccaneers. Bánkot lies at the foot of a rocky headland in the extreme north of Ratnágiri District. A mile outside the village and two miles south-west of Fort Victoria, there is a bar on the Bánkot river, with a narrow channel on its south-east side, with 9 feet at low water. Although well-buoyed, the bar is much exposed even in the fine season (September—June), and should not be passed without a pilot. Bánkot is closed during the south-west monsoon, but opens earlier and remains open longer than most of the Ratnágiri ports. The river is navigable, for vessels of 16 feet draught, 18 miles to Mahápral in Dápoli, and for vessels drawing 7 feet 10 miles farther to Mahád in Kolába. Trade has long left Bánkot. It is now little more than a large fishing village, with no manufactures. Coasting steamers call daily during the fair season. Landing-stage, bridge of boats, and a roomy rest-house for travellers.

Fort-William.—Citadel of Calcutta, and the name officially applied to the Government of Bengal.—*See* CALCUTTA.

Foul Island (in Burmese, *Nan-tha-kywún*).—An uninhabited island off the coast of Sandoway, in the Arakan Division, British Burma; lying about lat. 18° 3′ N., 6 leagues from the mainland, and 7 from Bluff Point, and visible from a distance of 8 leagues. The island is about 2 miles long, and is conical in form. To the north-east there are islets and rocks near the shore, and a reef partly above water extending southwards. The name is derived from a mud-volcano, which at times emits a torrent of hot mud bubbling with marsh gas.

Fraserpet.—Town in the Commissionership of Coorg; situated in latitude 12° 27′ 30″ N., and longitude 76° 0′ 20″ E., on the banks of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, 20 miles east of Merkára, the capital of Coorg, and 2720 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 1310, namely, males 631, females 679; number of houses, 298. Originally called Khushálnagar, 'glad town,' by Haidar Alí (who was then invading Coorg), on the news of the birth of his son Tipú first reaching him there, and he so named it in honour of the event; it derives its present name from Colonel Fraser, who was appointed the first British Political Agent in Coorg (1834), after its conquest by the British. The fort was built of hewn stone by Tipú Sultán, and stormed and demolished in 1789 by the Coorgs under their native Rájá, Dodda Vira Rájendra. The ruins supplied materials for the construction of the fine bridge over the Káveri (Cauvery), finished in 1848. Fraserpet is a pleasant retreat during the rainy season, the climate being much milder, and the rains less severe than at Merkára. It used to be the monsoon residence of the Commissioner of Coorg, but has lately been less frequented.

French Possessions.—The following brief account of the French Settlements in India has been condensed from materials courteously furnished by His Excellency the Governor-General of French India, supplemented by later documents at the Ministère de la Marine et des Colonies, Paris, June 1879, and from Pondicherri, dated May 1884. Pains have been taken to render the account accurate; but no responsibility can be accepted for any statements contained in it. A separate account of each of the Settlements is given under its own name. It has not, however, always been found possible to bring the local figures into exact accord with those obtained in France for this general *résumé.*

The head-quarters of the Governor-General of French India are at PONDICHERRI (*q.v.*); and the French Possessions comprise the following five Settlements, with certain dependent 'Lodges.' They aggregate 203 square miles, and had a total population in 1882 of 273,611.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN INDIA.

Name.	Area in Square Miles.	Population (1882).	Revenue for 1883.
Pondicherri, ...	115	140,943	£57,316
Chandarnagar, ...	4	26,443	8,400
Karikál, ...	53	93,443	17,743
Mahé, ...	26	8,246	1,790
Yanáon, or Yanán, ...	5	4,536	1,539
Total, ...	203	273,611	£86,788

A more detailed but less recent statement, dated Pondicherri, 1st January 1877, gives the total population at 280,381, namely, Europeans, 1116; Eurasians, 1511; natives, 277,754.

History.—The first French expedition into Indian waters, with a view to opening up commercial relations, dates as far back as 1603. It was undertaken by private merchants of Rouen; but it failed, as also did several similar attempts which followed it. In 1642, Cardinal Richelieu founded the first Compagnie des Indes Orientales, but its efforts met with no success. Colbert reconstituted the Company on a larger basis in 1664, granting it exemption from taxes and a monopoly of the Indian trade for fifty years. After having twice attempted, without success, to establish itself in Madagascar, Colbert's Company again took up the idea of direct trade with India, and its President, Caron, founded in 1668 the 'Comptoir' or agency at Surat. But on finding that city unsuited for a head establishment, he seized the harbour of Trincomali in Ceylon from the Dutch. The Dutch, however, speedily retook Trincomali; and Caron, passing over to the Coromandel coast, in 1672, seized Saint Thomé, a Portuguese town which had for twelve years been in the possession of Holland. He had, however, to restore it to the Dutch in 1674.

The ruin of the Company seemed impending, when one of its agents, the celebrated François Martin, suddenly restored it. Rallying under him a handful of sixty Frenchmen, saved out of the wrecks of the colonies at Trincomali and Saint Thomas, he took up his abode at Pondicherri, then a small village, which he purchased in 1683 from the Rájá of Vijayapur. He built fortifications, and a trade began to spring up; but he was unable to hold the town against the Dutch, who accordingly wrested it from him in 1693, and held it until it was restored to the French by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697.

Pondicherri became in this year, and has ever since remained, the most important of the French Settlements in India. Its foundation

was exactly contemporaneous with that of CALCUTTA; like Calcutta, its site was purchased by a European Company from a Native Prince; and what Job Charnock was to Calcutta, François Martin proved to Pondicherri. On its restitution to the French by the Peace of Ryswick in 1699, Martin was appointed Governor-General, and under his able management Pondicherri became an entrepôt of trade. CHANDARNAGAR, in Lower Bengal, had been acquired by the French Company in 1688, by grant from the Delhi Emperor; MAHE, on the Malabár coast, was obtained in 1725–26, under the government of M. Lenoir; KARIKAL, on the Coromandel coast, under that of M. Dumas in 1739. YANAON and MASULIPATAM (the site of a French factory in the 17th century), on the northern coast of Madras, were taken possession of in 1750, and were formally ceded to the French two years later.

The war of 1741 between France and England, led to the attack alike of Madras and of Pondicherri, the capitals of the French and English Companies in Southern India. Labourdonnais equipped at his own expense a fleet, and laid siege to Madras, which capitulated on the 21st September 1746. It was ransomed for £400,000. The English in due time made reprisals. On the 26th April 1748 they appeared before Pondicherri, but eventually retired after a most skilful defence of the town conducted by Dupleix during forty-two days. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle put a stop, in that year, to further hostilities, and left Dupleix free to realize his dream of an Indian Empire for France. Between 1746 and 1756 he obtained from the Delhi Emperor the Nawábship of the Karnátic; established a protectorate over the Subahat of Arcot and other parts of Southern India; made large additions to the French territory around Pondicherri, Karikál, and Masulipatam, and extended the French authority over the four Districts of Montfanagar, Ellore, Rájámahendri (Rájáhmundry), with Chikakol and the island of Seringham, formed by two arms of the Káveri (Cauvery). These various annexations opened up to the French commerce 200 leagues of seaboard, and yielded a revenue of £800,000 ('20 millions de francs').

This period of power proved of short duration. Dupleix, feebly supported by the Court of Versailles, met with a series of reverses from the English Company, and was recalled to Paris in 1753. A certain extent of territory still remained to his successor; but during the Seven Years' War, the Government of France could afford no reinforcements for its Indian possessions. The English Company overran them, defeated the French at Wandewash, and seized Arcot. Lally-Tollendal, after a chivalrous defence, surrendered Pondicherri on the 6th January 1761. The English demolished the town; the walls, the forts, the public buildings, were all destroyed. The captured troops

and all Europeans in the French Company's service were deported back to France.

Two years later, the peace of 1763 restored Pondicherri and the other Indian factories to the French; but with their former territories greatly curtailed. The abolition of the monopoly of the French Company in 1769 threw open the trade, and Pondicherri began to show signs of a new vitality. But in 1778 it again fell into the hands of the English East India Company. In 1782 the Bailli de Suffren made a brilliant effort on behalf of his depressed countrymen, fighting four battles with the English in seven months, and retaking the fort of Trincomali. Next year, the Treaty of Versailles restored Pondicherri and the other factories to the French, 20th January 1783. But the English Company took advantage, as usual, of the breaking out of the next war in Europe to seize the French possessions in India, and again compelled their rivals to evacuate their settlements in 1793. The Peace of Amiens once more restored them to the French in 1802; on the renewal of hostilities, the English Company again seized them, 11th September 1803. Pondicherri thus passed for the fourth time under British rule; and, during the long Napoleonic wars, the French power ceased to exist in India.

Pondicherri and the other factories were restored to the French by the treaties of 1814 and 1815, the territories being finally reduced to their present narrow limits. The French had to begin the whole work of their Indian settlements *de novo;* and an expedition arrived at Pondicherri on the 16th September 1816, to re-enter on possession. On the 4th December 1816, Pondicherri and Chandarnagar were delivered over to them; Karikál, on the 14th January 1817; Mahé, on the 22nd February 1817; and Yanáon, on the 12th April 1817. A convention between the Governments of France and England, dated 7th March 1815, regulated the conditions of their restoration. The French renounced their former right, under the convention of the 30th August 1787, to claim annually from the English East India Company 300 chests of opium at cost price, and agreed to henceforth pay the average rates realized at the Calcutta sales. They also bound themselves to make over to the English Company, at a fixed price, all surplus salt manufactured within their restored territories over and above the requirements of the local population. In compensation for these lucrative concessions, the English agreed to pay 4 *lákhs* of sikká rupees (one million francs, or, say, £40,000) annually to the French Government. As it was found that the right to make salt at all in the French Settlements led to the smuggling of that article into the surrounding British Districts, the French Government were induced, on the 13th May 1818, to surrender it altogether for an annual payment of '4000 pagodas' (33,600 francs), or, say, £1344. This second treaty, although

at first made for only fifteen years, has been indefinitely prolonged; the English Government supplying the French authorities with salt at cost price, and allowing the latter to sell it to their own subjects at their own rates. A somewhat similar commutation of the opium rights for a fixed money payment has recently been proposed by the French authorities, and sanctioned by the Government of India.

Present Territories.—In addition to the five Settlements already mentioned, which are treated of in separate articles, the French retain certain houses or patches of ground within British territory, in regard to which they claim certain rights. These '*Loges*' or patches of ground mark the sites of ancient French factories.

Revenue and Expenditure for 1883.—Receipts, as per budget, for all the French Settlements in India, £86,788 (2,169,700 francs); expenditure, £86,788. The million francs (£40,000) annually paid by the English Government in compensation for the surrender by the French authorities of their rights in regard to opium and salt, only passes through the Colonial accounts on its way to the National Exchequer, and does not appear in the above statement. Among items of expenditure may be noted—law, police, and justice, £9537; public works and sanitation, £21,100; public instruction, public worship, etc., £9734. The following table of the receipts and expenditure for each of the five Settlements is reproduced, without conversion, from the official budget for 1882:—

	Receipts (1878).	Expenditure (1878).	Receipts (1883).	Expenditure (1883.)
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Pondicherri, .	1,018,031	1,207,434	1,432,870	1,535,500
Chandarnagar, .	201,148	137,388	210,009	166,500
Karikál, . .	400,942	277,204	443,582	357,355
Mahé, . . .	46,292	44,057	44,757	54,243
Yanáon, . .	35,627	33,957	38,482	56,102
	1,702,040	1,702,040	2,169,700	2,169,700
Total, . .	£68,081	£68,081	£86,788	£86,788

Administration.—The military command and administration-in-chief of the French Possessions in India are vested in a Governor, whose residence is at Pondicherri. He is directly assisted by a minister of the interior, secretaries in the different administrative departments, and a principal judicial officer. In 1879, local councils and a council-general were established, the members being chosen by a species of universal suffrage within the French territories. Ten municipalities or communal boards were erected under a decree issued in 1880, namely, at Pondicherri, Oulgaret, Villenour, Bahúr, Karikál, La Grande-Aldée,

Nedouncadou, Chandarnagar, Mahé, and Yanáon. On the municipal boards natives are entitled to a proportion of the seats. Civil and criminal courts, courts of first instance, and a court of appeal compose the judicial machinery of the possessions. The army and establishments connected with the Governor-General and his staff at Pondicherri; those of the local governors or *chefs de service* at Chandarnagar, Yanáon, Mahé, and Karikál; together with other head-quarters' charges, necessarily engross a large proportion of the revenue. All the state and dignity of an independent Government, with four dependent ones, have to be maintained out of a total income (1883) of £86,788. This is effected by rigid economy, and the prestige of the French Government is worthily maintained in the East. Pondicherri is also the scene of considerable religious pomp and missionary activity. It forms the seat of a 'Préfecture Apostolique,' founded in 1828, consisting of a Préfet Apostolique and 7 priests for all French India; and of the 'Mission du Carnatic,' founded by the Jesuits in 1776. But the chief field of this mission lies outside the French Settlements. Of its 115,000 Christians, 160 churches, and 65 missionaries, no fewer than 92,000 of the Christians are British subjects, and 159 of the churches are in British territory. The rupee (standard value = 2 fr. 40 cents) is the only legal tender within French territories. The system of education is progressive to a satisfactory extent; in 1878, the number of children under instruction was 2877. In 1883, the Colonial College had a roll of 185 pupils. A line of railway running *viâ* Villenour, from Pondicherri to Belpur, maintains communication with Madras and the rest of British India. The telegraph is working throughout the Settlements. A Chamber of Commerce consisting of 14 members, 9 of them Europeans or persons of European descent, has lately been reorganized. The capital, Pondicherri, is a very handsome town, and presents, especially from the sea, a striking appearance of French civilisation. It forms the head-quarters of the French national line of steam communication with the East, the excellent Messageries Maritimes; but its natural situation does not admit of any great trade. The total exports and imports for French India in 1883 were returned at £1,067,009 (26,675,243 francs), of which £491,477 was with France and £575,532 with other countries, chiefly British. The number of ships entering ports in the French Settlements in 1883 was 516, with an aggregate burthen of 125,511 tons. Detailed accounts of each of the four Settlements which have ports will be found under PONDICHERRI, KARIKAL, MAHE, and YANAON.

Frontier District, Sind.—*See* UPPER SIND.

Fulaguri.—Village in Nowgong District, Assam.—*See* PHULAGURI.

Furreedábád.—Town in Delhi District, Punjab.—*See* FARIDABAD.

Furreedcote.—Native State in the Punjab.—*See* FARIDKOT.

Furreedpore.—District and town in Bengal, and *tahsíl* and town in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* FARIDPUR.

Fyzábád. — Division, District, *tahsíl*, and town in Oudh. — *See* FAIZABAD.

G.

Gábat.—Petty State in Máhi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area under cultivation, 1900 acres; population (1881) 1430; estimated revenue, £317. The Thákur of Gábat is a Mákwána Kolí; during his minority the estate is managed by the Political Agent. The State pays a tribute of £2, 10s. to the Rájá of Edar. Transit dues are levied in the State.

Gad. — Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. — *See* GARH.

Gadádhar. — River in North-Eastern Bengal; tributary to the Brahmaputra. It rises among the mountains of Bhután, and debouches upon the plains of the Dwárs through a picturesque gorge. The main stream of this river forms the boundary between the Western Dwárs of Jalpáigurí District, and the Eastern Dwárs, which are included within Goálpárá. Owing to many alterations in its course and variations in the size of the different channels, the Gadádhar undergoes several changes of name. The upper reaches are sometimes identified with the SANKOS, which is properly the name of a separate river. After entering Goálpárá District, the river bifurcates, the larger volume of water now passing into the Brahmaputra by a channel called the Gangádhar. The old channel, which retains the original name, is nearly dry, and only supported by the water of a small tributary, the Bámnái. The Gadádhar is navigable in the plains by boats of 4 tons burthen.

Gadag (*Garag*). — Town and Sub-division in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* GARAG.

Gádawárá.—Western *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 189,837, namely, males 97,292, and females 92,545, residing in 448 villages or towns and 37,843 houses, on an area of 874 square miles. Area assessed for Government revenue, 801 square miles, of which 496 square miles are cultivated, 98 square miles cultivable, and the remainder uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessments, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £20,068, or an average of 1s. $4\frac{1}{8}$d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by the cultivators, including cesses, £49,380, or an average of 3s. 1d. per cultivated acre. The total adult male agricultural population in 1881 numbered 67,126, or 35·36 per cent. of the total *tahsíl* popu-

lation; average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 6 acres per head. Total revenue of the *tahsíl*, £37,095 in 1882–83. In that year it contained 3 civil and 4 revenue courts, with 11 police and outpost stations.

Gádawárá.—Flourishing mercantile town in Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces; situated on the left bank of the river Shakar, on the main road from Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) to Bombay, and 30 miles west of Narsinghpur civil station. Lat. 22° 55′ 30″ N., long. 78° 50′ E. A station on the Great Indian Peninsular Railway; is situated 2 miles south of the town, whence a branch railway runs to the Mohpání coal-fields 14 miles farther south-south-east. Population (1881) 8100, chiefly tradesmen and artisans. Hindus numbered 6553; Kabír-panthís, 48; Muhammadans, 1012; Christians, 6; Jains, 353; and aboriginal tribes, 128. The town possesses a considerable manufacture of cotton cloth, and the dyers are numerous and fairly skilful. Gádawárá is a great entrepôt for grain and cotton from Eastern Bhopál, Bhílsá, Ságar, etc. The carriers take back salt, *gúr* or crude sugar, and piece-goods. Exports by rail in 1881 amounted to 812,951 *maunds* or 595,796 cwts.; imports by rail, 152,586 *maunds* or 111,716 cwts. The public offices until 1874 were in the small fortress on the river bank (now falling into decay), built by a family of Gond Rájputs in the early days of Maráthá rule. English and vernacular boys' school; post-office; police station.

Gaddilam (or *Garudánadi*).—River in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* GARUDANADI.

Gadháli.—Petty State of Gohelwár *pránt* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 3 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Seven miles west of Ujalvár railway station. Population (1881) 1223. Estimated revenue, £900; tribute of £169, 18s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £30 to Junágarh.

Gadhia.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Lies on the outskirts of the Gir forest. Population (1881) 777. The revenue is estimated at £250; tribute of £27, 8s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2 to Junágarh.

Gadhi Dúbhar.—Village in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 2348, including many Muhammadan Baluchís, relations and clansmen of the *zamíndár*. The town contains several brick-built houses, and the roads are also paved with brick. Six mosques, daily *bázár*, and large weekly market on Sundays. Principal articles of trade—sugar and salt. Several fine groves of trees surround the village.

Gadhka.—Petty State of Halár *pránt* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 6 villages, with 1 independent

tribute-payer. Population (1881) 919. Lies 10 miles east-south-east of Rájkot. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £1000; tribute of £46 is payable to the British Government, and £20 to Junágarh.

Gadhúla.—Petty State of Gohelwár *pránt* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Lies 5 miles from Dhola railway station. Population (1881) 355. The revenue is estimated at £300; tribute of £16, 16s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2, 16s. to Junágarh.

Gadkhálí.—Town and police station in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the river Kabadak, on the road from Calcutta to Jessor. Lat. 23° 5′ 30″ N., long. 89° 6′ E. In former days the scene of numerous outrages, perpetrated by the Bediyás, then a predatory tribe, now a wandering gipsy caste.

Gadra.—Town in Umárkot *táluk*, Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) under 2000. The municipal revenue in 1873–74 was £71, but the municipality was abolished in 1878 on the introduction into Sind of Bombay Act vi. of 1873.

Gadra.—Town in Gohelwár *pránt* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 5822, namely, 4121 Hindus, 1214 Muhammadans, 487 Jains. One of the principal centres of the new faith of Swámí-Náráyan, formulated by a Hindu reformer named Shehjánand in 1804. Shehjánand died here in 1830. Criminal court of the *pránt*; dispensary; boys' and girls' school.

Gágar.—Range of mountains in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, forming a portion of the outer Himálayan range; situated between lat. 29° 14′ and 29° 30′ E., and between long. 79° 9′ and 79° 39′ E. The chain runs along the whole southern border of the District, parallel to the plains, from the Kosí river to the Káli, and presents a line of higher elevation than any ranges between it and the main ridge of the central Himálayas. The principal peak is that of Chína, overlooking the lake and station of NAINI TAL, which nestle among the hollows of the Gágar. Forests of cypress, *tún*, fir, and other timber trees clothe the hill-sides. Average elevation, between 7000 and 8000 feet.

Gáglá.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal, lying between the Sankos and Dharlá rivers. Chief exports—jute, tobacco, and ginger. Lat. 25° 59′ N., long. 89° 40′ 30″ E.

Gágraun.—Town and fort in the State of Jháláwár, Rájputána. The fort is situated between the rivers Ahu and Káli-Sind, on a straight rocky ridge running south-east and north-west, parallel to the low range between Jhalrapatan city and cantonments. It was built by Zálim Singh, who considered it a good military position. The town lies on a low part of the ridge, and the large fort which protects and commands it on the south-east is connected by a masonry wall. Although no objection

is made to the town being entered, admission is forbidden inside the fort, which is separated from the town by a strong high wall, and a deep ditch cut in the solid rock crossed by a permanent stone bridge. The principal entrance to the fort is from the town. After crossing the ditch, the passage lies between two high bastions, without any gateway, ascending with high walls on either side until the great gate is reached. Inside the fort, the path skirts a large excavation in the rock intended to hold water, but often quite dry, then zig-zags into the inner works through a large gateway, when a tolerably open space is found with long lines of buildings under the walls on the right. The exit is to the south-east by a simple doorway in the wall; from this there is a descent till the end wall is reached immediately over the river; and then the path crosses a small precipice protected by ramparts, 60 or 70 feet above the ground outside, leading to the large circular bastions already mentioned. On the north-east face there is but one wall, the precipitous nature of the hill here rendering a second and lower wall unnecessary. The noticeable feature in the country around Gágraun is the extreme straightness and parallelism of the two ridges, not only at the place itself, but for two or three miles on either side. Both hills and valleys are thickly wooded, and the gorge by which the river finds its way out into the open plains is very fine, high precipices alternating with wooded slopes on either side. One precipice, absolutely vertical, was plumbed and found to be 307 feet in height. This is known as the 'Gid Kerai' or Vulture's precipice, and, it is said, was formerly used as a place of execution by the Kotáh Rájás, the victims being precipitated on to the rocks below. The tops of these ridges are the culminating points of the range. Wild animals abound. There are only two fairly good passes across the hills, one north of Gágraun up the Amjar valley to Panwar, and the other leading to Rájpura about 2¼ miles farther north, both, however, impracticable for carts. During the dry season many of the rapids are fordable on foot, but dangerous.

Gahijá.—Town in the Sakkar *táluk*, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population under 2000. The Muhammadans of the town belong chiefly to the Gahijá tribe, whence the village derives its name; the Hindus are mainly Lohános.

Gahmar.—Town in Zamaniá *tahsíl*, Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 29′ 40″ N., long. 83° 50′ 55″ E. Stands in the southern portion of the District, 1 mile south of the Ganges and 15 miles south-east of Gházípur. Station on the East Indian Railway main line, 424 miles from Calcutta. Population (1881) 10,443, namely, males 4974, and females 5469. Hindus numbered 9733, and Muhammadans 710. Area of town site, 125 acres. Number of houses, 1494. In spite of its size, Gahmar is a

purely agricultural village, adjoining an indigo factory under European management.

Gahrauli.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* GARHAULI.

Gáibándhá.—Sub-division of Rangpur District, Bengal. Area, 760 square miles; number of towns and villages, 1523; houses, 79,134. Population (1881), males 228,727, and females 222,135; total, 450,862. Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 314,392; Hindus, 136,369; Christian, 1; Jains, 52; and 'others,' 48. Average density of population, 593 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·0; persons per village, 296; houses per square mile, 105; persons per house, 5·7. The Sub-division comprises the four police circles (*thánás*) of Govindganj, Bhawániganj, Sadullápur, and Sundarganj. In 1883 it contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts, with a regular police of 66 officers and men, and 902 rural police or village watchmen.

Gajapatinagar.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 348 square miles; houses, 24,371, collected into 228 villages, all *zamíndárí*. Population (1881) 116,771, namely, 58,727 males and 58,044 females. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 116,209; Muhammadans, 556, of whom about 500 were Sunnís; and Christians, 6.

Gajapatinagar.—Town in Gajapatinagar *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 16′ N., long. 83° 25′ E. Population (1881) 2130, residing in 471 houses. Head-quarters of the *táluk*, with sub-magistrate's court, sub-registrar's office, dispensary, school, and post-office. An important mart for hill produce.

Gajendragad. — Chief town of an estate in Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency; 51 miles south-east of Kaládgi town. Lat. 15° 44′ 30″ N., long. 76° 0′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 5458, namely, Hindus, 4671; Muhammadans, 764; Jains, 18; and Christians, 5.

Gajghantá.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Chief exports—jute and lime. Lat. 25° 49′ 45″ N., long. 89° 10′ E.

Galáothí.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 12 miles north of Bulandshahr town and 28 miles from Meerut (Merath). Population (1881) 5404, namely, 2706 Hindus, 2696 Muhammadans, and 2 Jains. Akbar gave revenue-free grants to a number of Sayyids, whose descendants held them till 1857, when they were confiscated on account of the rebellion of their holders. The celebrated rebel, Wálidád Khán of Málágarh, held a half-share in the village. Halting-place and encamping-ground for troops, road inspection bungalow, police station, post-office, and weekly market. The village police force and conservancy staff are maintained out of funds derived from a house-tax under Act xx. of 1856.

Galghásiá (or *Bánstálá*).—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; formed by the junction of the Bánstálá Khál and Guntiákhálí. Falls, after a south-easterly course, into the KHOLPETUA, opposite Kalyánpur village.

Galikonda (or *Galiparvat*, 'Windy Hill'). — Range of hills in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 30′ N., long. 18° 50′ E.; averaging from 2800 to 5000 feet above sea-level, about 45 miles from the sea. The two highest peaks reach a height of 5345 and 5287 feet respectively. The shape of the range is that of a double crescent joined by a narrow saddle. The summits of the range are of gneiss and syenite, capped with laterite and black mould. They are easy of access except near the top, but the road throughout has been improved by Government sappers. In 1860, the Madras Government tested this range as a sanitarium by sending up a detachment of Europeans to a site selected, and named 'Harris's Valley.' The place, however, proved unhealthy, the men suffering much from fever, and, after repeated attempts, the experiment was abandoned. It was thought, however, that a healthier site for the cantonment might have been found. The land is the property of the Rájá of Vizianágaram, who has a coffee estate here.

Gambat. — Town in Khairpur State, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) under 2000. Formerly a centre of cotton-weaving; annual produce about 5000 pieces.

Gambhar.—Mountain stream of the Punjab, taking its rise in the lower ranges of the Himálayas, in lat. 30° 52′ N., long. 77° 8′ E., and flowing in a north-westerly direction past the military station of Subáthu, until it falls into the Sutlej (Satlaj), after a course of about 40 miles, in lat. 31° 17′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. It is nowhere navigable, and in the rainy season it is liable to sudden floods. The river is bridged near Subáthu, on the road to Simla.

Gambíla (or *Tochí*).—River in Bannu District, Punjab; rises in the independent hill country inhabited by the Mangal tribe of Afgháns. It thence flows east through the Dáwar valley, which it largely irrigates, and enters British territory a few miles from the town of Bannu. Its banks afford but little opportunity for cultivation, being at first composed of boulders, and afterwards of pure sand. A few irrigation cuts, however, supply water to some 12,138 acres of tilled land. It falls into the KURAM three miles below Lakki, lat. 32° 37′ 30″ N., long. 71° 6′ 15″ E. Sweet and wholesome drinking water. Average depth, 1½ feet in the cold season, 4½ feet during the rains. Nowhere bridged, but fordable at all times, except after heavy rain in the hills. The river is known as the Tochi until it reaches the Marwat *tahsíl*, when it becomes the Gambíla. At this point are numerous springs. Four miles farther east, the Gambíla is joined by a hill torrent known as the Lohra, and

lower down it receives much spill-water from the Kachkot Canal. All these contributions help to make the Gambíla a perennial current, but about one year in every six, owing to insufficient rain in the hills drained by the stream, irrigation from it fails, and the spring crops dry up.

Gandái.—*Zamíndárí* or estate attached to Ráipur District, Central Provinces, at the foot of the Sáletekri Hills, 56 miles north-west of Ráipur. The estate was formerly much larger; but in 1828, with the sanction of the Rájá of Nágpur, it was divided among the three sons of the former holder. Area, 203 square miles. Population (1881) 20,872, namely, males 10,306, and females 10,566, residing in 77 villages, and occupying 6459 houses; average density of population, 103 persons per square mile. The *zamíndár* is a Gond. The principal village, Gandái, at which a large weekly market is held, is situated in lat. 21° 40′ 30″ N., and long. 81° 9′ E. A bathing-place of some sanctity is on the southern boundary of the estate.

Gandak, Great (known also as the *Náráyaní* or *Salgrámi;* the *Kondochates* of the Greek geographers). — River in the North-Western Provinces and Behar; rises high among the recesses of the Nepál Himálayas, in lat. 30° 56′ 4″ N., and long. 79° 6′ 40″ E., and flowing with a general south-westward course till it reaches British territory, crosses the frontier between the District of Gorakhpur in the North-Western Provinces and the District of Champáran in Bengal. For some 20 miles it forms the boundary between the two Provinces, after which it flows entirely within the limits of Bengal for 40 miles farther, and then once more separates the Provinces for 12 miles of its course. Thence it enters the limits of Bengal, flowing between the Districts of Champáran and Muzaffarpur (Tirhút) on the north-east, and Sáran on the south-west. It finally joins the Ganges just opposite Patná, in lat. 25° 49′ 53″ N., and long. 85° 13′ 45″ E. The Gandak is a snow-fed stream, issuing from the hills at Tribení *ghát*, in the north-west of Champáran, but it soon afterwards acquires the character of a deltaic river. Its banks generally rise above the level of the surrounding country, and floods accordingly often inundate large tracts of the low-lying land on either side. It has no tributaries in its course through the plains, and the drainage of the neighbouring region sets not towards it, but away from it. The lowest discharge of water into the Ganges, towards the end of March, amounts to 10,391 cubic feet per second; the highest recorded flood volume is 266,000 cubic feet per second. During a great part of its course, the river is enclosed by protective embankments. Where it issues from the hills it has a clear and rapid current of considerable volume, never fordable, full of rapids and whirlpools, and navigable with difficulty. Rafts of timber come down the stream from Nepál, and these, with the

sunken snags, render navigation perilous. Grain and sugar are sent down from Gorakhpur District; and during the rains, boats of 1000 *maunds* burthen can make their way up stream as far as Lálganj in Tirhút. The down traffic is more considerable than the up trade, and a register kept for four months of 1868 showed an export of 26,300 tons of produce during that period.

Gandak, Little.—River in the North-Western Provinces; rises in the Nepál Hills, and enters Gorakhpur District about 8 miles west of the Great Gandak; flows parallel with the latter channel southward through the District, and empties itself into the Gogra (Ghagrá) at Súnaria, just within the limits of Sáran in Bengal, in lat. 25° 41′ N., long. 85° 14′ 30″ E. Except in the rains, it has a small stream only 20 yards in breadth, and fordable in most places.

Gandáva.—Political capital of the Province of Kachhi, Balúchistán, situated on the Mulá Pass route, 40 miles south-west from Bágh. Lat. 28° 32′ N., long. 67° 32′ E. A fortified place, built apparently on an artificial mound. The winter residence of the Khán of Khelát, whose palace was described as the only respectable edifice in the place. This building was almost entirely destroyed by the great floods of 1874. Here also is the Khán's garden within a walled enclosure. Only periodical visits are paid by the Khán to the town, and the population therefore is probably a fluctuating one.

Gandevi. — Sub-division of the Gáekwár of Baroda's territory, Guzerát, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 27,762 persons, or 617 to the square mile. Area, 45 square miles. Bounded on the north and west by the Jalálpur Sub-division of Surat District, and on the east and south by the Chikhli and Balsár Sub-divisions of the same District. Land revenue (1879-80), £14,988. The Sub-division is for the most part flat, with but few small elevations, and not well watered. The soil is black.

Gandevi. — Town in the Gandevi Sub-division, Baroda territory, Guzerát, Bombay Presidency, distant 3 miles from the Amalsár station of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, and 28 miles south-east of Surat. Latitude 20° 47′ 30″ N., longitude 73° 3′ E. Population (1881) 7082, namely, 4844 Hindus, 1522 Muhammadans, 662 Pársís, 53 Jains, and 1 Christian. The town is the head-quarters station of the *vahivátdár* and the *faujdár*, and contains a post-office, dispensary, and an Anglo-vernacular school. Large tank and small temple. Grain, molasses, *ghí*, and castor-oil are the principal articles of trade.

Gandgarh.—Range of hills in Ráwal Pindi and Hazára Districts, Punjab, being the western portion of General Cunningham's outer or sub-Himálayan range. Lat. 33° 57′ N., long. 72° 46′ E. These hills take their rise in Hazára, and, projecting into Ráwal Pindi, end in the

lofty mountain which specially bears the name of Gandgarh. The northern escarpment toward the valley of Chach descends by gentle cultivated slopes into the fertile vale at its feet; but the remaining sides form rugged and precipitous cliffs, intersected by ravines, through which the tributaries of the little river Haroh have cut themselves deep channels.

Gandha Mádan.—One of the principal peaks in the Orissa Tributary States, Bengal; situated in Keunjhar State. Lat. 21° 38′ 12″ N., long. 85° 32′ 56″ E.; height, 3479 feet.

Gandhol.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Population (1881) 191. Estimated revenue, £200; tribute of £10, 6s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to Junágarh.

Gandikot (*'The Fort of the Gorge;' Gunjicottah*).—Mountain fortress in Kadapa (Cuddapah) District, Madras Presidency; situated in the Yerramalái Mountains, 1670 feet above sea-level. Latitude 14° 48′ N., longitude 78° 20′ E. The fort, with its temple (endowed by the earliest of the Vijayanagar kings), was a famous stronghold in ancient days. Built (according to Ferishta) in 1589, it was captured by Golconda, and held by Mír Jamlá; later it was the capital of one of the five Circars (Sarkárs) of the Karnátic Haidarábád Bálághát, until absorbed by the Pathán Nawáb of Cuddapah. It was here that Fateh Náik, the father of the great Haidar, first distinguished himself. Haidar improved and garrisoned the fort, which was captured by Captain Little in the first war with Tipú in 1791. 'The strong natural fortress of Gandikot must in olden times have been impregnable. Perched on the scarped rock that overhangs at a height of some 300 feet the winding Pennár, this picturesque group of buildings, military and religious together, illustrate the wild secluded life which to a Hindu robber chief seemed to be grandeur. Cut off from all but those who sought (and could climb innumerable stairs) to see him, he surrounded himself at once with temples and bastions, with a crowd of priests and a rabble of soldiers; and yet no sooner was the impregnable fort attacked, than it belied its name, and yielded to treachery or fear. The fort of Gandikot was, however, one of the most important in the Cuddapah country. It was the key to the valley of the Pennár, and its name frequently occurs in the account of ancient struggles'—(Gribble). The population of Gandikot town (1881) was 973.

Ganeswari.—River in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, rising in lat. 25° 18′ N., long. 90° 49′ E., on the skirts of a hill called Kailás. Its course lies southwards into Maimansingh District, through a limestone formation, in which there are some large stalactite caverns. Its rocky banks form scenery of a picturesque beauty.

Ganga Bál.—Small lake in Kashmír.—*See* GANGAL.

Gangaikandápur (*Gangá-kanda-puram* (Tamil), 'The city visited by the Ganges,' from a well in the temple mythically connected with the Ganges; sometimes also called *Gangáikondu Solapúr*, or 'The city of the Chola king, Gangái').—Town and temple in Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Situated in latitude 11° 12′ 30″ N., longitude 79° 30′ E., about 6 miles to the east of Jáiamkondu Solápuram; connected with Udaiyárpolaiyám by the Chellambaram road, and 1 mile distant from the great Trunk Road running from Tanjore to South Arcot. The village is purely agricultural, 66 per cent. of the population being cultivators. Close to the village is one of the most remarkable but least known temples in Southern India. The building consists of one large enclosure, measuring 584 feet by 372. This was evidently once well fortified by a strong surrounding stone wall, with batteries at each corner. In 1836, however, the batteries were almost entirely destroyed, and the wall removed, to provide materials for the dam across the river Coleroon known as the Lower Anicut, which was then under construction. In the place of the old wall, a low one of stone has been built on two sides of the enclosure, but the other sides have been left open. The *vimana* in the centre of the courtyard is a very conspicuous building, and strikes the eye from a great distance. The pyramid surrounding it reaches a height of 174 feet. The ruins of six *gopuras*, or gate pyramids, surmount different parts of the building. That over the eastern entrance to the main enclosure was evidently once a very fine structure, being built entirely of stone except at the very top. It is now almost completely in ruins. All the lower part of the centre building is covered with inscriptions, which have not as yet been deciphered. Dr. Caldwell is of opinion that this temple is one of the great, if not the greatest, of present Hindu temples, and that the old and splendid temple of Tanjore is probably merely a model of it. Tradition says that the village was once one of the principal seats of the Chola kings; and there is no doubt that it was formerly a much more important place than it now is. Northward from its site runs an embankment 16 miles long, provided with several substantial sluices, and of great strength, which in former times must have formed one of the largest reservoirs in India. This huge tank or lake was filled partly by a channel from the Coleroon river, upwards of 60 miles in length, which enters it at its southern end; and partly by a smaller channel from the Vellár, which entered it on the north. Traces of both these channels still remain. The tank has been ruined and useless for very many years, and its bed is now almost wholly overgrown with high and thick jungle. It is said, traditionally, that its ruin was wilful, and the act of an invading army. 'All round the Pagoda and village, but completely overgrown with jungle, are some remains of ancient buildings, now much resembling the mounds or "heaps" which indicate the site of ancient Babylon, but in which the village elders

point out the various parts of an extensive and magnificent palace. When this palace was in existence, Gangá-kanda-puram was the wealthy and flourishing capital of a small monarchy; and the great tank spread fertility and industry over miles and miles of what is now trackless forest' (Pharaoh). It has more than once been projected to restore this magnificent work, and to supply it by a channel from the Upper Anicut.

Gangal.—Tank or small lake in Kashmír State; on the Harmukh mountain, near the north-eastern boundary of the valley. Latitude 34° 37′ N., longitude 74° 58′ E. Length, 1½ mile; breadth, 300 yards. Remarkable only for its sanctity in the eyes of the Hindus, who make pilgrimages to its banks, and throw into the waters such fragments of the bones of their relatives as remain unconsumed after the funeral cremation. Large temple sacred to Siva in his form of Mahádeva. An annual fair is held here.

Gangápur.—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5880, namely, 5264 Hindus, 534 Muhammadans, and 82 'others.'

Gangaru.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* GANGIRU.

Gangáwali.—Seaport at the mouth of the Gangáwali river, North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Latitude 14° 36′ N., longitude 74° 21′ E. Population (1881) 982. In the Ankola customs' division. Imports for eight years ending 1881–82 averaged £418, and exports £2063. Famous temple to the goddess Ganga, wife of Siva. The site also of a timber depôt under the Forest Department.

Ganges.—The great river of Northern India, formed by the drainage of the southern ranges of the Himálayas. This magnificent stream, which in its lower course supplies the river system of Bengal, rises in the Garhwál State, in lat. 30° 56′ 4″ N., and long. 79° 6′ 40″ E., and falls into the Bay of Bengal after a course of 1557 miles. It issues under the name of the Bhágírathí from an ice-cave at the foot of an Himálayan snow-bed above Gangotri, 13,800 feet above the level of the sea. During its earlier passage through the southern spurs of the Himálayas, it receives the JAHNAVI from the north-west, and subsequently the ALAKNANDA, after which the united stream takes the name of the Ganges. DEO PRAYAG, the point of junction, is a celebrated place of pilgrimage, as is also Gangotri, the source of the parent stream. At Sukhi it pierces through the Himálayas, and turns south-west to HARDWAR, also a place of great sanctity. Thence it proceeds by a tortuous course through the Districts of Dehra Dún, Sahéranpur, Muzaffarnagar, Bulandshahr, and Farukhábád, in which last District it receives the Rámgangá. At Allahábád the type of the river changes. Heretofore, the Ganges has been little more than a series of shoals, pools, and rapids, except, of course, during the melting of the snows and the rainy season. At

Allahábád, however, 668 miles from its source, it receives the JUMNA, a mighty confluent, which also takes its rise in the Himálayas, to the west of the sources of the Ganges. The combined river winds eastward by south-east through the North-Western Provinces, receiving the Gúmti and the Gogra. The point of junction of each of these streams has more or less claim to sanctity. But the tongue of land at Allahábád, where the Jumna and the Ganges join, is the true Prayág, *the* place of pilgrimage, to which hundreds of thousands of devout Hindus repair to wash away their sins in the sacred river. Here is held, every twelfth year, the great *kumbh* fair (*mela*), when the planet Jupiter is in Aquarius (*kumbh*), and the sun in Aries. The last *kumbh mela*, in 1882, was attended by from 800,000 to 1,000,000 persons. Pilgrims came from all parts of India, from Kashmír and Madras, and from Kandahár and Calcutta. The fair began on the first day of Mágh (5th January), and lasted till the full moon of that month on the 3rd February. The most strict observers keep the whole month as a period of sanctity, bathing daily at the confluence of the two rivers, fasting by day, and altogether abstaining from all but the commonest food. Such devotees are called *kalap-báshi* (good-livers).

Of all great rivers of India, none can compare in sanctity with the Ganges, or Mother Gangá, as she is affectionately called by devout Hindus. From her source in the Himálayas to her mouth in the Bay of Bengal, every foot of her course is holy ground; and many of the other sacred rivers of India borrow their sanctity from a supposed underground connection with her waters. It is interesting to observe that this superstition is not to be found in the earliest books of Sanskrit literature, composed at a time when the primitive Aryan race had not yet penetrated into the great plain of Eastern Hindustan. The legend of the Ganges first appears in the two epic poems of the Mahábhárata and Rámáyana, and affords abundant scope for the mytho-poetic faculty subsequently displayed in the voluminous literature of the Puránas. In this legend, which admits of numerous variations, the three supreme gods of the Hindu Pantheon—Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva—each perform a conspicuous part, so that the Ganges has been preserved from sectarian associations. The human *dramatis personæ* in the story are localized as princes of AYODHYA, the modern Oudh. Gangá herself is described as the daughter of the Himálayas, who is persuaded, after infinite solicitation, to shed her purifying stream upon the sinful earth. The ice-cavern beneath the glacier at GANGOTRI, from which the river springs, is represented as the tangled hair of the god Siva. The names of BHAGIRATHI and SAGAR have a prominent place in the legend.

After the lapse of twenty centuries, and the rise and fall of rival religions, veneration for the Ganges still figures as a chief article in

the creed of modern Hinduism. The pre-eminently sacred spots on its banks—GANGOTRI, HARDWAR, ALLAHABAD, BENARES, and SAGAR ISLAND at its mouth—are frequented by thousands of pilgrims from every Province of the peninsula. Even at the present day, the six years' pilgrimage from the source to the mouth, and back again, known as *Pradakshina*, is performed by many; and a few fanatical devotees may yet be seen wearily accomplishing this meritorious penance by 'measuring their length.' To bathe in the Ganges, especially at the great stated festivals, will wash away the stain of sin; and those who have thus purified themselves carry back bottles of the sacred water to their less fortunate relations. To die and be buried on the river bank is a passport to eternal bliss. Even to exclaim 'Gangá, Gangá,' at the distance of a hundred leagues, will atone for the sins committed during three previous lives.

The river thus reverenced by the Hindus deserves their homage by reason of its exceptional utility for agriculture and navigation. None of the other rivers of India approach the Ganges in beneficence. The Brahmaputra and the Indus may have longer streams, as measured by the geographer, but the upper courses of both lie hidden within the unknown recesses of the Himálayas. Not one of the great rivers of Central or Southern India is navigable in the proper sense of the term. The Ganges begins to distribute fertility as soon as it reaches the plains, within 200 miles of its sources; and at the same point it becomes in some sort navigable. Thenceforwards it rolls majestically down to the sea in a bountiful stream, which never becomes a merely destructive torrent in the rains, and never dwindles away in the hottest summer. If somewhat diminished by irrigation, its volume is forthwith restored by numerous great tributaries; and the wide area of its river basin receives annually a sufficient rainfall to maintain the supply in every part. Embankments are in few places required to restrain its inundations, for the alluvial silt which it spills over its banks year by year affords to the fields a top-dressing of inexhaustible fertility. If one crop be drowned by the flood, the cultivator calculates that his second crop will abundantly requite him.

Shortly after passing the holy city of Benares, the Ganges enters Behar, and after receiving an important tributary, the Son (Soane), from the south, passes Patná, and obtains another accession to its volume from the Gandak, which rises in Nepál. Farther to the east, it receives the Kusí, and then, skirting the Rájmahal Hills, turns sharply to the southward, passing near the site of the ruined city of Gaur. By this time it has approached to within 240 miles, as the crow flies, from the sea. About 20 miles farther on, it begins to branch out over the level country, and this spot marks the commencement of the Delta, 220 miles in a straight line, or nearly 300 by the windings of the

river, from the Bay of Bengal. The main channel takes the name of the Padmá or Padda, and proceeds in a south-easterly direction, past Pabná to Goálandá, where it is joined by the Jamuná, or main stream of the BRAHMAPUTRA. The vast confluence of waters rushes towards the sea, receiving further additions from the hill country on the east, and forming a broad estuary known under the name of the MEGHNA, which enters the Bay of Bengal near Noákhálí. This estuary, however, is only the largest and most easterly of a great number of mouths or channels. The most westerly is the HUGLI, which receives the waters of the three westernmost distributary channels that start from the parent Ganges in or near Murshidábád District. Between the Húglí on the west and the Meghná on the east, lies the Delta. The upper angle of it consists of rich and fertile Districts, such as Murshidábád, Nadiyá, Jessor, and the Twenty-four Parganás. But towards its southern base, resting on the sea, the country sinks into a series of great swamps, intersected by a network of innumerable channels. This wild waste is known as the Sundarbans, from the *sundrí* tree, which grows in abundance in the seaboard tracts. The most important channel for navigation is the Húglí, on which stands CALCUTTA, about 80 miles from the mouth. Above this city, the navigation is almost entirely conducted by native craft; the modern facilities for traffic by rail, and the increasing shoals in the river, having put an end to the previous steamer communication, which plied until about 1860 to as high up as Allahábád. In the upper portion of its course in the North-Western Provinces, timber and bamboos form the bulk of the river trade; and in the lower part bordering on Bengal, stone, grain, and cotton. Below Calcutta, important boat-routes through the Delta connect the Húglí with the eastern branches of the river, both for native craft and steamers. The Ganges is essentially a river of great cities: Calcutta, Monghyr, Patná, Benares lie on its course below its union with the Jumna, and Allahábád at the junction of the two rivers.

Till within a recent period, the magnificent stream of the Ganges formed almost the sole channel of traffic between Upper India and the seaboard. The products not only of the river valley, but even the cotton of the Central Provinces, used formerly to be conveyed by this route to Calcutta. But though the opening of the railway has caused a revolution in the channels of trade, heavy goods in bulk still follow the old means of communication; and the Ganges may yet rank as one of the most frequented waterways in the world. In 1877–78, the total imports from the interior into Calcutta were valued at 36 millions sterling, of which 17 millions came *viâ* the Gangetic channels; country boats carrying more than 14 millions, and river steamers (chiefly from the eastwards) 3 millions. The downward traffic, as might be expected,

is most brisk in the rainy season, when the river comes down in flood. During the rest of the year the boats make their way back up-stream, often without cargoes, either helped by a favourable wind or laboriously towed along the bank. The dimensions of the river traffic of Bengal may be inferred from the following figures, which give the number of boats passing certain registration stations in 1876-77:—At Bámanghátá, on the Circular Canal, 178,627 boats, of which 59,495 were laden; at Húglí, 124,357, of which 73,233 were laden; at Patná, 61,571, of which 44,384 were laden; at Goálandá, 54,329, of which 42,249 were laden; at Sáhibganj, 43,020, of which 30,798 were laden. The river trade of Bengal with the North-Western Provinces and Oudh will be seen from the following statistics for 1877-78:—Imports into Bengal *viâ* the Ganges—oil-seeds, 2,619,818 *maunds;* food-grains, 952,521 *maunds;* sugar, 970,132 *maunds;* cotton, 40,192 *maunds:* total of the four items, 4,582,663 *maunds* or 197,759 tons. Exports from Bengal—food-grains (chiefly rice), 2,299,797 *maunds;* salt, 481,820 *maunds:* total of these two items, 2,781,617 *maunds* or 101,827 tons. Total of the foregoing items, upwards and downwards, 7,364,280 *maunds* or 269,586 tons. Those figures, however, comprise but a portion of the river-borne traffic of the Ganges. Among other commodities in the down-stream traffic may be mentioned—(1) Timber and wood from the Bijnaur (Bijnor) forests to Garhmukhtesar and Anúpshahr, for transport to Agra and Delhi by road, estimated at 20,000 *maunds;* (2) Ditto, *viâ* the Rámgangá and Garra rivers to Farukhábád, Cawnpur, and Allahábád, 199,000 *maunds;* (3) Grain and oil-seeds, from wharves west of Cawnpur to Cawnpur and Allahábád, 258,000 *maunds;* (4) Salt, from Farukhábád, Cawnpur, and Allahábád, to wharves in the Benares Division, and to Patná in Bengal, 60,000 *maunds;* (5) Cotton from Allahábád and Mírzápur to Benares and Patná, 59,000 *maunds;* (6) Stone, from wharves in Mírzápur District, to Bengal, 450,000 *maunds*, and many other articles of agricultural produce and commerce. In the up-stream traffic, the only noticeable point is the import of rice from Hájípur and Satna wharves in Benares. Articles of European commerce, such as wheat, indigo, cotton, and saltpetre, mostly prefer the railway, as also do the imports of Manchester piece-goods. But if we take into consideration the new development of the export trade in oil-seeds, and the growing increase in the interchange of food-grains between various parts of the country, it seems probable that the actual amount of traffic on the Ganges by native craft has not at all diminished since the opening of the railway; and the river is not only a rival, but also a feeder to the railway. Stations favourably situated on its banks form centres of collection and distribution for the surrounding country. Such cities as Cawnpur, Allahábád, Benares, and Patná have thus

been able to preserve their former importance, while fishing villages like Sáhibganj and Goálandá have by the same means been raised into river marts of the first magnitude.

The catchment basin of the Ganges and its tributaries is bounded on the north by a section of about 700 miles of the Himálayan range, on the south by the Vindhya mountains, and on the east by the ranges which separate Bengal from Burma. The vast river basin thus enclosed embraces 391,100 square miles. The flood discharge of the Ganges at Rájmahal, after it has received all its important tributaries, was formerly estimated at 1,350,000 cubic feet of water per second. Latest calculation: length of main stream of Ganges, 1509 miles by the Húglí route, or 1557 to the Meghná mouth, or with its longest affluent, 1680; breadth at entrance to the sea, 20 miles; breadth of channel in dry season, $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles; depth in dry season, 30 feet; high-flood discharge at Rájmahal, 1,800,000 cubic feet per second; ordinary discharge, 207,000 cubic feet; longest duration of flood, about 40 days. Average discharge at Hardwár, when the river is at its lowest, 7000 cubic feet per second; at Benares, 19,000 cubic feet per second. At the point at which it issues from its snow-bed, the Ganges is 27 feet broad and 15 inches deep, 13,800 feet above sea-level. At Gangotri, 10 miles lower, it is 43 feet broad and 18 inches deep; elevation, 10,319 feet. At Bháiroghátí, the river is 8511 feet above sea-level; at Deo Prayág, at its confluence with the Alaknandá, 133 miles from its source, 1953 feet; at Hardwár, 1024 feet; and at Cawnpur, 379 feet above sea-level. Average fall from Allahábád to Benares, 6 inches per mile; from Benares to Calcutta, between 4 and 5 inches; from Calcutta to the sea, 1 to 2 inches. The total length of the stream in its different stages, from the source of the Jahnavi to the Húglí mouth is returned as follows:—From the source of the Jahnavi to the junction of the Alaknandá and Bhágírathí rivers, 133 miles; thence to Hardwár, 47 miles; thence to Allahábád, at its confluence with the Jumna, 488 miles; thence to Sibganj, where the Húglí channel commences in a branch thrown off from the main stream, known as the Bhágírathí, 563 miles; thence to the junction of the Bhágírathí and Jalangí, below which the stream takes the name of the Húglí, 120 miles; thence to Chandarnagar, 48 miles; thence to the sea by way of Calcutta, 110 miles: total, 1509 miles. The length from Chandarnagar to the sea may be variously stated from 100 to 150 miles, according to the point in the estuary at which the sea is reckoned to commence. The distance here taken (110 miles) ends at the Ságar anchoring buoy. The water of the Ganges begins to rise towards the end of May, and is usually at its maximum in September. The following table, drawn up by Captain Thomas Prinsep (quoted from Thornton), illustrates the rise of water in the river at various places:—

	Greatest known Annual Rise.		Rise in low Seasons.	
	Ft.	In.	Ft.	In.
At Allahábád,	45	6	29	0
,, Benares,	45	0	34	0
,, Colgong,	29	6	28	3
,, Jalangí,	26	0	25	6
,, ,, (according to Rennell),	32	0	...	
,, Kumárkhálí (not quite certain),	22	6	22	0
,, Agradwíp (Nadiyá),	23	9	23	0
,, Calcutta (independent of tide),	7	0	6	7
,, Dacca (according to Rennell),	14	0	...	

Great changes take place from time to time in the river-bed, and alter the face of the country. Extensive islands are thrown up, and attach themselves to the bank; while the river deserts its old bed and seeks a new channel, it may be many miles off. Such changes are so rapid and on so vast a scale, and the corroding power of the current on the bank so irresistible, that it is considered perilous to build any structure of a large or permanent character on the margin. Many decayed or ruined cities attest the alterations in the river-bed in ancient times; and within our own days, the main channel which formerly passed Rájmahál has turned away from it, and left the town high and dry, 7 miles from the bank. The scheme of this Gazetteer is to deal with India by its administrative divisions; and much information regarding the Ganges will be found in the articles on the Districts, cities, etc., along its route. For example, a very full account will be given of the HUGLI RIVER, the great commercial mouth of the Ganges. To save repetition, therefore, the foregoing notice only attempts a general description of the course of the river.

Ganges Canal (technically the Upper Ganges Canal).—An important irrigation work and navigable channel in the North-Western Provinces, passing through the eastern portion of the Upper Doáb, and watering a large tract of country, from Hardwár to Nánun, near Akbarábád in Alígarh District, where it divides into two branches, known as the Etáwah and Cawnpur terminal lines. The Upper Canal is considered to terminate at the regulating bridges of Gopálpur and Jeyra, 33 and 39 miles respectively from Nánun, where the Lower Canal joins the branches. The lower portion of the branches thence become a portion of the Lower Canal. The plan for this great work originated in the success of the EASTERN JUMNA CANAL, coupled with the periodical recurrence of drought and famine in the opposite half of the Doáb, which remained unprotected by the distributaries from that main channel of irrigation. Attention was thus directed to the Ganges as affording a constant water-supply for a similar undertaking, which should irrigate the eastern portion of the Doáb, from the Siwálik Hills to Cawnpur District. As early as 1827, Captain Debude had proposed

a plan for utilizing the waters of the West Kálí Nadí, along an ancient line through the Districts of Meerut, Bulandshahr, and Alígarh; but as practical difficulties would have prevented the realization of this scheme, Colonel Colvin in 1836 recommended the examination of the Ganges in the neighbourhood of Hardwár, where it emerges upon the plains from a gorge of the Siwáliks. The terrible famine of 1837–38, which shortly afterwards devastated the Doáb, and caused an enormous loss of life and revenue, directed the thoughts of our Government towards the desirability of providing against similar calamities in future. In 1839, Major (afterwards Sir) Proby Cautley was deputed to inspect the Hardwár lowlands, and on his report a committee was appointed to investigate the question. On the 16th of April 1842, the actual works were commenced by opening the excavation between Kankhal and Hardwár. After many delays, caused by administrative changes or alterations of engineering plans, the Ganges Canal in its earliest form was opened on the 8th of April 1854. In 1866, a committee was appointed to consider the advisability of further modifications; and their deliberations resulted in the construction of several new works, and the continuance of the main line towards Allahábád, by means of a cut from Rájghát, known as the Lower Ganges Canal.

The canal, as at present constituted, derives its supplies from the Ganges at Hardwár. The main channel then proceeds through the Districts of Saháranpur and Muzaffarnagar, giving off the Fatehgarh or Anúpshahr branch in the latter District. Thence it sweeps in a bold curve westward, across the headwaters of the Kálí Nadí, and through the heart of Meerut District. Near Begamábád it trends south-eastward, through Bulandshahr and Alígarh, and, as stated above, near Akbarábád divides into two branches, terminating respectively at Etáwah and Cawnpur. The Anúpshahr branch, which leaves the main channel in Muzaffarnagar District, proceeds almost parallel with the Ganges through the whole western edge of the Upper Doáb. The Etáwah branch, leaving the main line at Akbarábád, is joined by the Lower Ganges Canal at Jeyrá, 39 miles from Akbarábád, and at this point the Upper Canal is held to end. The length of the main canal amounts to 445 miles. The branches vary much from time to time, as new portions are opened or old channels disused.

The capital expenditure on the canal up to 31st March 1883, amounted to £2,767,538; and the total ultimate cost is estimated at £2,848,442 for direct outlay only, *i.e.* exclusive of interest. The capital outlay, inclusive of interest, was returned at £2,826,480 in 1875–76. This includes a sum of £70,000 for a navigation canal to connect the Ganges Canal near Gháziábád with the Agra Canal by means of the Hindan river. The total gross income from the Upper Ganges Canal received in cash during the year ending 31st March

1883, was £235,148; besides an indirect revenue of £44,301. The current outlay (charged to revenue) during the year was £88,061, and the allowance for interest, £103,541. Total charges, £191,602; leaving a 'net surplus' of £87,847.

It may be interesting to compare these totals with those of 1875–76, for which year full returns were given in the first edition of this work. The total revenue in 1875–76, directly or indirectly due to the canal, was returned at £289,925; of which sum £212,881 consisted of direct payments for water-rates, navigation, etc.; while £77,043 was produced by increased land revenue, through the influence of irrigation. The aggregate amount of annual income realized from the opening of the canal to the end of the year 1875–76, amounted to £2,652,009, a sum which hardly falls short of the original capital outlay. Out of this amount, £2,330,190 consisted of direct income from rates, etc.; while £321,819 was due to increased land revenue. Against these figures must be set the working expenses, which amounted to £105,462 during 1875–76; and to £1,400,982 during the whole period from the opening of the canal up to the end of that year. These figures show that the net revenue to the end of 1875–76 amounted to £929,207, exclusive of the increased land revenue; and to £1,251,027, inclusive of increased land revenue. Against the net profit thus calculated must be set a sum of £2,419,912, as charge for interest on capital outlay to the end of the year, being at the rate of 5 per cent. up to 1870–71, and 4½ per cent. since that date. The difference between the net revenue and the interest charge, up to the end of 1875–76, leaves an adverse balance of £1,490,704, excluding the increased land revenue, and £1,168,885, including land revenue. The following statement shows the actual work accomplished during the year 1875–76:—Average water-supply at Rúrkí (Roorkee) in cubic feet per second, *kharíf* 5235, *rabí* 4868; area irrigated in acres, *kharíf* 317,325, *rabí* 571,842—total, 889,167; area irrigated per cubic foot of supply, 178 acres; length of distributaries open, 3386 miles; area irrigated per mile of distributary, 262 acres; water-rate, £202,813. In 1882–83, the total area irrigated was 856,035 acres, as follows:—*Kharíf*—rice, 51,387 acres; cotton, 20,558 acres; indigo and other dyes, 141,425 acres; and fodder-crops, 7558 acres. *Rabí*—wheat, 342,663 acres; other food-grains, 165,843 acres; oil-seeds, 140 acres; and fibres, 2546 acres. Miscellaneous crops—sugar-cane, 109,261 acres; opium, 110 acres; other drugs, 1741 acres; garden produce, 8912 acres; and miscellaneous, 5548 acres.

The falls along the canal have been utilized in part as a motive power for mills, but much of the available power has never yet been employed. Navigation takes place along the entire length of the

main canal, and consists in the rafting of timber, or the carrying of merchandise in boats. The rafting is almost entirely confined to the upper portion of the main channel, as far as the point opposite Meerut. The number of boats plying in 1875–76 amounted to 325. Further details as to the agricultural benefits derived from the canal, the principal distributaries, the crops specially irrigated, and the effects of percolation, will be found under the District notices of Sahāranpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Bulandshahr, Alígarh, Muttra, Etah, Máinpurí, Etáwah, Farukhábád, and Cawnpur, all of which see separately.

Ganges Canal, Lower.—An important irrigation work in the North-Western Provinces, designed to water the whole southern portion of the Doáb. The new channel may be regarded as a southward extension of the GANGES CANAL, with which it has direct communication. The headworks draw their supply from the river at Narorá (lat. 27° 47′ N., long. 78° 18′ E.), on the border of Alígarh District, about 4 miles below the Rájghát station of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The present work owes its origin to a committee appointed in 1866 to examine the various projects for strengthening the irrigating power of the Ganges Canal; but the scheme originally adopted is due to the joint efforts of General Strachey, C.S.I., Mr. R. Forrest, Major Jeffreys, and Colonel Brownlow. Under their design, which was afterwards modified, the water for the canal was to be raised at the point above mentioned, with a discharge fixed at 3500 cubic feet per second in the cold weather, and 6500 cubic feet in the rains.

The main channel commences with a bottom width of 216 feet, a slope of 6 inches per mile, and a full supply depth of 10 feet. The main line crosses the Kálí Nadí at Nadrái, and the Isan to the west of Etah. Thence, proceeding by what was formerly called the 'Supply Branch' in the original project, it crosses the Cawnpur branch at Gopálpur, and the Etáwah branch at Jeyra, being united with those branches by means of regulating bridges. After crossing the two lines, it proceeds direct to Shekhoábád, where it makes a sharp turn to the south-east, and after running parallel with the East Indian Railway, which crosses it twice, as far as Etáwah, it proceeds past Sikándra and Bhognipur in the south-west portion of Cawnpur District, until it falls into the Jumna at a point a little above the tail of the Etáwah branch. This latter portion of the canal from Jeyra downwards is called the Bhognipur branch. Two other branches take off from the upper portion, the Fatehgarh branch, and the Beawár branch, which is really the upper portion of the main line of the original project now cut short at the place where it was intended to have crossed the Cawnpur branch. The proposal to extend the canal to Allahábád, which was a part of the original project, though not entirely abandoned, will probably not be

carried out, and forms no part of the scheme as at present sanctioned. Should the extension at some future time be resolved on, it would be by a prolongation of the Cawnpur branch, which it has been resolved to extend to Fatehpur, half-way between Cawnpur and Allahábád. The canal scheme, as revised, is intended for a discharge of 5100 cubic feet per second in the rains, and 3400 cubic feet in the cold weather. The only navigable portion of the canal is the length of main line from the head at Narorá to the junction with the two branch lines at Gopálpur and Jeyra.

Three divisions of the work were set on foot during the year 1873-74, at Narorá, Kásganj, and Bhongáon, comprising the necessary preparations for 107 miles of main canal and 24 miles of supply channel. The chief engineering feat of the upper portion consists in the weir and headworks at Narorá, which include a solid wall 3800 feet in length, with a section of 10 feet by 9, having 42 weir-sluices, founded on rows of huge square blocks. Among other important works now completed may be mentioned the approach to the canal head from the river, the embankment and aqueduct across the Kálí Nadí, the double regulator at the Cawnpur branch crossing 12 large bridges, and 3 syphon culverts for cross drainage. The Cawnpur and Etáwah branches were first opened for irrigation in November 1878.

The revised scheme will bring under irrigation 457,575 acres of land in the *kharíf* or autumn harvest, and 369,300 acres in the *rabí* or spring harvest, as a maximum attainable in course of time. In 1882-83, the area actually under irrigation from the Lower Ganges Canal was 606,017 acres, as follows:—*Kharíf*—rice, 11,095 acres; cotton, 508 acres; indigo and other dyes, 150,576 acres; and fodder-crops, 312 acres. *Rabí*—wheat, 193,358 acres; other food-grains, 193,019 acres; and fibres, 1 acre. Miscellaneous crops—sugar-cane, 24,291 acres; opium, 16,122 acres; other drugs, 282 acres; garden produce, 5962 acres; and miscellaneous, 10,491 acres.

The original scheme embraced in all 555 miles of new trunk lines, estimated at a total cost of £1,825,845; and if we add to this sum the primary cost of the Cawnpur and Etáwah branches, now absorbed by the new project, the capital account would rise to £2,226,523. The total gross income from the Lower Ganges Canal received in cash during the year ending the 31st March 1883 was £156,817, besides an indirect revenue of £20,783. The current outlay (charged to revenue) during the year was £66,638, and the allowance for interest, £94,177. 'Net surplus,' £16,785. Estimates return the future gross income at £273,600; and the net income at £169,200, giving a direct profit of 6·1 per cent. From these approximate figures, and the actual cost of the Ganges Canal, it would seem that the total ultimate outlay on

this great united system of protective irrigation will probably not exceed the sum of $5\frac{3}{4}$ millions sterling.

In estimating the probable financial results of this, as of other Indian canals, it must be remembered that, besides the direct benefits from water dues, navigation fees, etc., and the indirect benefits from increased land revenue or other taxes, the canal irrigation acts as an insurance against famine, thus preventing great ultimate loss to the treasury, and affording a means of safety for thousands among the poorer population in seasons of drought. For further particulars, see Cawnpur, Etáwah, Farukhábád, Fatehpur, and Máinpurí Districts.

Gangiru.—Town and agricultural centre in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, situated 35 miles south-west of Muzaffarnagar town, in lat. 29° 18′ N., long. 77° 15′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5275, namely, 2377 Hindus, 2621 Muhammadans, and 277 Jains. Area, 102 acres. A straggling village, with many brick ruins; on a raised site, but containing numerous undrained water-holes. Canal channel to the east of the town, and another 1 mile west.

Gangoh.—Town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 46′ 20″ N., long. 77° 18′ E. Distant from Saháranpur 23 miles south-west. Population (1881) 12,089, namely, Muhammadans, 6735; and Hindus, 5354. Area of town site, 99 acres. Consists of an old and a new quarter, the former founded by the legendary hero, Rájá Gang, from whom the town derives its name, and the latter by the Muhammadan saint, Shaikh Abdul Kaddús, who gives his title to the western suburb, where his tomb still stands in the midst of many other sacred shrines. Surrounded by groves of mango and other trees; narrow, tortuous streets, now paved and drained with brick-work; good water; public health generally above the average. School-house, charitable dispensary, police station, post-office. Little trade; prosperity confined to money-lenders. During the Mutiny, Gangoh was frequently threatened by the rebel Gújars under the self-styled Rájá Fathná; but Mr. H. D. Robertson and Lieutenant Boisragon attacked and utterly defeated them towards the end of June 1857. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-rate is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Income in 1881–82, £325, being at the rate of $6\frac{1}{2}$d. per head of population.

Gangotri. — Mountain temple in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 59′ N., long. 78° 59′ E. Stands on the right bank of the BHAGIRATHI or GANGES, 8 miles from its source, in a small bay or inlet, surrounded by a wall of unhewn stone. The temple is a square building, about 20 feet high, containing small statues of Gangá, Bhágírathí, and other mythological personages connected with the spot. Pilgrims visit the shrine as the goal of their journey, regarding this point as the source of the holy river; but no houses exist for their

accommodation, and comparatively few reach so far up the course of the stream. Flasks filled at Gangotri with the sacred water are sealed by the officiating Brahmans, and conveyed to the plains as valuable treasures. Elevation above sea-level, about 10,319 feet.

Gángpur.—Native State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal, situated between lat. 21° 47′ 5″ and 22° 32′ 20″ N., and between long. 85° 10′ 15″ and 85° 34′ 35″ E. Bounded on the north by Lohárdagá District and the State of Jashpur; on the south by the States of Bonái, Sambalpur, and Bámrá; on the east by Singhbhúm District; and on the west by Ráigarh, a chiefship of the Central Provinces. Area, 2484 square miles. Population (1881) 107,965.

Gángpur State consists of a tangled mass of hills and jungle, the only open portions being the valleys of the Ib, Sankh, and South Koel rivers. In these valleys there is a considerable amount of good soil; but the hills, which run in spurs from the northern and southern ranges in the valleys of the Sankh and Koel, and from the east and west ranges of the valley of the Ib, divide the cultivable area into small blocks, so that the actual tillage is much less than in other tracts of a similar area. Magnificent forests occupy the valley of the Bráhmaní, Koel, and Sankh rivers. Included within the State are two feudatory chiefships subordinate to the Rájá, Nágrá in the east and Hingír in the west. The chief rivers are the Ib, the Sankh, and the South Koel; the two latter unite in the east of the State, and, after a southerly course, fall into the sea in Cuttack District as the Bráhmaní. Diamonds and gold are occasionally found in the Ib; coal exists in Hingír, but is not yet worked. The principal jungle products are lac, *tásár* silk, resin, and catechu. Tigers, leopards, wolves, bison, etc. abound.

History.—Gángpur, with Bonái and eight neighbouring States now attached to the Central Provinces, was ceded to the British by the treaty of Deogáon in 1803, but was restored to the Rájá of Nágpur by special agreement in 1806. It reverted to the British under the provisional engagement with Madhují Bhonsla (Apá Sáhib) in 1818, and was finally ceded to us in 1826. Gángpur yields the Rájá an annual income of £2000; tribute to the British Government, £50.

The State contained a population (1881) of 107,965, namely, males 56,009, and females 51,956. Hindus numbered 105,880; Muhammadans, 267; Christians, 105; persons professing aboriginal religions, 1713. The bulk of the population are of aboriginal descent, but have gradually adopted Hinduism in some shape as their religion. The Bhuiyás and Uráons are the most numerous of the aboriginal tribes. The residence of the Rájá is at Suádí, on the Ib, the valley of which is very fertile. Chief crops—rice, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, and tobacco. Villages in Gángpur are held either on feudal tenures or on farming leases. The feudal tenures date from early times, when the vassals of

the chief received grants of land in consideration of rendering military service, and making certain payments in kind. These payments have been commuted for a quit-rent in money; but the attendance of the vassals with rusty matchlocks or bows and arrows is still enforced when the chief moves through his domains.

In the hamlets, the priests of the aboriginal deities rank next to the *gáontiá*, or head-man; their duties are to decide boundary disputes, to propitiate the gods of the mountains and forest, and to adjudicate on charges of witchcraft. Since the State came under British rule, human sacrifices have been abolished. The police force is purely indigenous. The feudatories, with one exception, form a rural militia.

Gangrov.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur (Oodeypore), Rajputána. Situated on the Nimach and Nasírábád (Nusseerábád) road, 51 miles from the former, and 93 from the latter. It possesses a fine artificial lake, and is commanded by a hill fort belonging to the Ráo of Bedla.

Gangurià.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle, in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 12′ 22″ N., long. 88° 8′ 48″ E. Population under 5000.

END OF VOLUME IV.

MORRISON AND GIBB, EDINBURGH,
PRINTERS TO HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE.